

# SCHOOL LIFE

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OFFICE OF EDUCATION

In This Issue

Perspectives in Articulation

ROBERT POPPENDIECK

Education for Family Life

EDNA P. AMIDON



May 1960



# The Insistent Present

THE UNDERSTANDING which we want is an understanding of an insistent present. No more deadly harm can be done to young minds than by depreciation of the present. The present contains all there is. It is holy ground; for it is the past, and it is the future. . . . The ages of Shakespeare and of Molière are no less past than are the ages of Sophocles and of Virgil. The communion of saints is a great and inspiring assemblage, but it has only one possible hall of meeting, and that is, the present; and the mere lapse of time through which any particular group of saints must travel to reach that meeting-place, makes very little difference.

—ALFRED NORTH WHITEHEAD



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# Brief. . . . .

## EDUCATION AND GOVERNMENT

# Reports . . . . .

### UNESCO-IBE conference

THE 23d International Conference on Public Education will meet in Geneva, Switzerland, July 6-15. It is sponsored by UNESCO and the International Bureau of Education and will bring together representatives of more than 75 nations.

The United States will send four representatives. Head of the delegation will be Samuel M. Brownell, formerly the U.S. Commissioner of Education (1953-56) and now superintendent of schools in Detroit. The other delegates will be Leo P. Black, assistant commissioner in charge of instructional services in the Colorado State Department of Education; Romaine P. Mackie, chief of the Services for Exceptional Children and Youth Section, Office of Education; and Fredrika M. Tandler, also from the Office, where she is assistant director of the International Educational Relations Branch and specialist for international organizations.

The topics for discussion at the conference will be education for the mentally deficient child and the preparation and issuing of secondary school curriculums. As customary, each nation will report on the progress its public education has made in the past year.

Before the conference, Mrs. Tandler, together with James Simsarian of the U.S. Department of State, will attend a meeting of experts at UNESCO House in Paris, to join in

preparing a draft of an international convention and international recommendation on discrimination in education.

*School Life* will report this fall on the Geneva conference.

### Report on youth conference

ENTITLED "Children and Youth in a Changing World," the May-June issue of *Children*, bimonthly interprofessional journal published by the Children's Bureau of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, is a report on the Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth. Among its contents is a summary of the major recommendations of the conference.

Single copies of *Children* cost 25 cents each from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. A year's subscription is \$1.25.

### White House Conference on Aging

WHEN the delegates to the White House Conference on Aging meet next January in Washington, D.C., they will work in 10 groups on 20 subjects to recommend solutions to the problems of our Nation's older people. That they do so was one of the recommendations made by the 150-member national advisory committee to the conference during a 2-day meeting in May.

Governors of the 53 States and Territories will appoint delegates to the national conference who can represent both rural and urban communities in all work groups. Of the 2,800 delegates to the national conference, 1,700 will represent States and Territories; 660, national organizations. The others will be delegates-at-large, consultants, or members of the advisory committee.

Month-by-month progress toward the White House Conference on Aging is reported exclusively in *Aging*, published monthly by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. *Aging* reports on developments in education, employment, health, housing, rehabilitation, and other matters of interest in gerontology. A year's subscription is \$1, from the Government Printing Office.

### NSF inservice institutes

THE National Science Foundation has awarded 13 grants to colleges and universities under a pilot program to provide inservice institutes in 1960-61 for about 400 elementary school teachers and supervisors of science and mathematics. Participants will receive travel and book allowances and will have their tuition and fees paid. Classes will be held outside of regular school hours, usually once a week for the full academic year. Application must be made directly to the college or university holding the institute; a list is available from the National Science Foundation (Washington 25, D.C.)

# *A School's Reach Exceeds Its Grasp* or PERSPECTIVES IN ARTICULATION

By ROBERT POPPENDIECK, *Specialist for Teacher Education*

SCHOOL-COLLEGE articulation is in the spotlight. It has been in the spotlight before, but now the emphasis is different. We are giving more attention to the problems of articulation and showing ourselves disposed to do something about them.

Mutual understanding between high school and college staff members is increasing. At each level, individual staff members in encouraging numbers are making personal contacts with their counterparts at the other level. Institutions are addressing themselves to improved working relations. Professional associations are supporting the new and broadened emphasis through meetings, publications, and programs of action. All this is good, and the educational press is giving it publicity.

Nevertheless, the crucial importance of effective school-college relationships—importance for the institutions as well as for the students who move from one level to another—requires that more be done and that it be done now. While practice is being reexamined, innovations are being made; but more need to be made. While policies are being reevaluated, improvements are being made; but still greater improvements are called for. The very concept of articulation is under appraisal. This, too, is good; and this article is written in a mood of appraisal.

It is written, too, in the hope of stimulating the systematic and deliberate improvements of articulation between schools and colleges so that mutual understanding and cooperative action will narrow the gap between them, lessen the overlap, reduce stu-

dent mortality, and improve efficiency at both levels. In this sense it offers a rationale for effective articulation. It takes stock of possibilities and limitations. It estimates the specifications.

## The Dimensions

Effective school-college articulation is a dynamic thing. It is dynamic in that it operates in a situation affected at once by enduring values and by accelerating change and must account for both. It is dynamic in that it facilitates the achievement of goals far beyond school-college continuity. Like a dynamo, effective articulation draws on one kind of power—mutual understanding and respect—and transforms it into another—the energy to adjust creatively and without interruption to new, higher, and more demanding educational requirements.

Effective articulation is probably best seen as mutual understanding among the persons concerned. It must operate in a complex situation. Even if there were only one school and one college, there would still be many persons making unique and often contrasting contributions. Articulation is the concern of administrators and administrative boards; but it is not theirs to control, for it generally involves the institution's entire staff. It is frequently the responsibility of supervisory officers in schools and colleges, but it is not theirs to control, either, for it is the instructional staff who have the continuing contact with the students making the transition. The faculty, however, hardly control that transition, for many other academic—yes,

and nonacademic—forces affect the student. Even if mutual understanding among the various sponsors of a student is well achieved, the student group to which he belongs will modify it.

Indeed, the total influence of school, college, and community can hardly be said to dominate the transition—the preparation, the changeover, the actual adjustment—for the peer group may well have the greatest influence. Its influence may start sooner, last longer, and hit harder than we realize. After all, youth contributes its own energy to school-college continuities; and youth is renowned for its energy.

In such a complex of relations, the essence of effective articulation surely lies in the mutual understanding among the persons concerned. With a full measure of this understanding, articulation is an enabling and a supporting force, undergirding the central education enterprise. It is both a necessary condition and a force to be employed. For the student it affects not only the transition-orientation stage of high school-college transition, but all the subsequent learning that depends on his background and previous development.

## The Roots

Concern for the improvement of the school-college transition, for two-way continuity, for mutual understanding, for quality in the broad pattern of relationships—this does not grow merely from contact between the placement and admissions functions of schools and colleges. It has roots that go much deeper, into our



very culture; effective school-college articulation is at one and the same time good science, good management, and good human relations.

*First*, good science requires effective articulation. A phenomenon cannot be isolated for study until it is identified by origin and background. To know the student in isolation is to know but a fragment, for he is part of all he has met. To know his teachers—past, present, and future—only briefly is not to know him at all. To ignore data on his high school background is to proceed on opinion, often outdated opinion—an unscientific and inexcusable procedure. To neglect following a student after he leaves school or college, to collect no data on his subsequent adjustment, success, or failure—this is to lack a sense of the goal toward which education strives.

On the other hand, to participate in programs of two-way exchange of data on students, on curriculum, and on purposes and values—this is to replace isolation with continuity and opinion and ignorance with fact. This is elementary, but it is sound science. Systematic and deliberate application of scientific approaches can contribute significantly to effective articulation.

*Second*, good management requires effective articulation: the whole idea of efficient transition from school to college is in harmony with the tenets of efficient administration. Both school and college management want the time and effort they invest to be productive: school management when the school is assisting with college plans and with application, record transmittal, and followup; college management when the college is interviewing new students, extending hospitality, making provision for them, and inducting them into courses. Student accounting and utilization of facilities require accurate anticipation of enrollments. Operating efficiency requires that erroneous estimates and awkward adjustments be kept to a minimum.

Good management and effective school-college continuity go together.

At the school level, transition to college is but part of the transition of all students—but it provides perspective and motivation for the whole. At the college level, admission and orientation are but facets of articulation by the receiving institution; as such they tend to obscure long-term and far-reaching aspects of articulation.

*Third*, effective school-college articulation is good human relations. Articulation has long been a concern of counselors and student personnel workers. The influence of these workers and a broader insight into good human relations have been major sources of improvement in school-college articulation. The literature of professional associations over the years is rich with evidence of concern for better articulation and of specific contributions to the techniques of transition employed in colleges and schools. It appears that neither the practical arguments of management nor the rational reasons of science have been as significant for improved articulation as the arguments of human relations; in fact, effective school-college transition has its deepest roots in human relations.

Effective articulation may have other roots in our culture, but consideration of these three alone is enough to give insight into the nature and significance of school-college articulation.

### The Forces

The full impact of continuation, however—whether good or bad—cannot be sensed in educational practice alone. The educational enterprise of a free people is so complicated that the transition from school to college is bound to be deeply affected by many forces.

Four are of particular moment: Specialization, the integrity of the schooling at each level, our growing dependence on brainpower, and our human failing of forgetting.

The first force is specialization, that paradox which bedevils our technical culture. Our intense specialization, great thinkers tell us, in-

hibits us in our efforts to understand each other. Persons in one specialty have more in common wherever they live than do next-door neighbors with different specialties. The more we specialize, the more our ability to share the interests of others deteriorates. Besides, as our neighbors specialize and we know less and less about their interests, problems, and ideas, our ignorance fosters suspicion, suspicion makes us withdraw, and withdrawal makes our ignorance and suspicion grow.

This is bad culturally and socially; educationally it is crucial for it complicates the transition of students from one level of schooling to another.

The very specialization of the high school teacher puts him out of contact with teachers of other subjects. His high school specialization keeps him from making ready contact with college teachers in his field. The student is trapped among them: he is the one who suffers from the specialized emphases, misunderstandings, and prejudices of his well-meaning mentors. The very culture that nourishes our accelerating change and our increasing specialization has within itself the roots of decay, a decay that requires effective school-college articulation as an antidote. Serious consideration must be given to ways in which we can counteract the disintegrating effects of specialization.

A second force affecting articulation is, in a sense, a positive side of specialization: the basic integrity of the schools. Consider that each level of schooling, like each stage of human development, has its intrinsic values and tasks. To serve as continuation from a lower level or as a preparation for a higher level—this is not the major function of any educational institution. Because it is not, educators at related levels must cooperate extensively for mutual understanding and adjustment. Where understanding is deep, programs serving the focal values of education at one level can support the development of related values at another level. Unless the school meets the responsibilities at its

own level effectively, it can hardly reinforce those of another.

A third force is our growing dependence on brainpower.

We cannot afford to let capable students fail in college when we can improve transition and adjustment to reduce the number of failures. Our way of life depends too much on expanding knowledge to permit it to be shortchanged by unnecessarily curtailed education. Brainpower has been our chief capital and is our primary resource. But brainpower creates demands. Advancing frontiers of knowledge require a larger body of well-educated citizens. The reward for pushing these frontiers outward is a more abundant life; the price, more and better education. Yet large numbers of our most capable young people do not remain in college. Better articulation can help to reduce the mortality rate.

Our unscientific willingness to squander the brainpower of our young people on the chance of favorable conditions for college adjustment is a luxury we cannot afford. Articulation, which can be achieved through mutual understanding among the staff members in schools and colleges, calls for a continuing education of the capable in situations productive of success. We must narrow the gaps in curriculum so that competent students can move ahead without failure and defeat. We must eliminate overlap in the curriculum to prevent boredom. These corrections cannot be made by teachers on one side of the transition alone. Each must know and understand the other's efforts, values, and standards. As simple a matter as strengthening mathematics instruction in school to undergird science learning in college has evolved in many areas through interdisciplinary, inter-level cooperation. How much more can be achieved through better communication and understanding! How much more can be achieved when common efforts lead to mutual respect! Optimum release of student brainpower cannot be achieved without improved working relations between schools and colleges.

The fourth force affecting articulation is that common human frailty—forgetting.

How easy it is for the teacher to become so engrossed in his subject that he neglects his teaching. Small wonder then that he forgets about his former classmates who failed in college or dropped out from sheer dissatisfaction. One important facet of the successful educational enterprise is the teacher who succeeds in understanding the student. Much emphasis has been put on understanding the student as an individual, but the value of understanding him in perspective, at a stage in his development, should also be considered.

Some of the best teachers improve the quality of their teaching through rediscovering, in *perspective*, the values, the drives, frustrations, and satisfactions of their student days. Time—even a few years—gives memories a halo and deceives the instructor with false recollections. It might well be that school-college articulation would take on new quality if instructors could see students as counterparts of themselves as they themselves really were in their own student days.

By becoming aware of the forces that certainly affect school-college articulation, the teacher will see his responsibility in a new light. As he remembers, as he emphasizes the release of brainpower, as he supports the values of the respective levels of schooling, and as he struggles against the segregating forces of specialization, he will see the opportunity for mutual understanding among school and college staff members highlighted for the demands of the world in which we live.

### The Marks

Unless an idea stimulates people to make changes, it has little value. The changes that go with improved articulation can readily be seen in specifics: School and college people are getting together more often, more students are thinking earlier about college, and parents and the public are becoming more interested and concerned. But

perhaps marks of effective articulation can best be suggested in a series of questions probing both the progress and the promise of articulation.

### BASIC ACTION

1. How can growing public interest be fostered generally and directed toward school-college articulation specifically?
2. How can colleges assist and support schools in encouraging able students to an earlier planning for their choice of college?
3. In what ways can the availability, scope, and quality of guidance, both for students and parents, be improved?

### ANTICIPATION

4. To what extent should high school students—as individuals or in large or small groups—have opportunity to visit colleges and sit in on classes and laboratory activities?
5. To what extent should college students visit high schools?
6. How can contacts between school and college students be used more effectively?
7. How can visits by college staff to high schools be used to give maximum benefit to both institutions?

### PREPARATION

8. In what ways can the school improve its methods of helping students learn how to study so that they will be equipped for the more rigorous demands of college?
9. How can precollege orientation, such as "foundations of college" programs given outside of school time by schools and colleges, be made available to more students?
10. To what extent should schools, colleges, and specialized agencies provide special advice and assistance to students concerned with such problems as choice of college, acceptance requirements, entrance examinations, and financing?
11. How can "acceptance nerves" be relieved?

### INSTITUTIONS

12. How can more public schools and colleges achieve the same working relations as private institutions have?
13. In what ways can junior and community colleges use their localized orientation for school-college articulation as well as for their own programs?

### PROGRAM EMPHASIS

14. How can schools and colleges provide for continuing cooperation in developing and assessing coherent and unified programs that will facilitate progress within disciplines from school to college?
15. How can colleges and schools co-

operate to insure such achievement in high school that colleges can cease remedial work?

16. How can the high school be assisted in providing for superior students accelerated programs consistent with school purposes and not duplicating college work?

17. How can college acceleration—early admission, advanced credit, and advanced placement—be appropriately appraised and established?

18. To what extent should independent study be fostered in high school?

#### PROGRAM STRUCTURE

19. To what extent should college-level courses be given to capable students in high school?

20. What are the primary factors to be considered in the upward extension of high school programs through the 14th year?

21. What are the primary factors to be considered in condensing the 4-year high school and 4-year college programs into a 7-year sequence?

22. Under what conditions should the total school-college sequence be reconstructed?

23. What are the strength and weakness of having three or more sequential tracks for college-bound students of varying competence?

24. What can be done in high school to undergird the oft-uttered, much-violated theory that the library should be the heart of the college?

25. How can schools and colleges use textbook appraisal as an effective cooperative activity?

#### STAFF ACTION

26. How can interinstitutional or area committees be used most effectively?

27. What cooperative ventures should be developed toward improving the records sent by schools and colleges to each other?

28. What cooperative ventures should be developed toward improving college catalogs for prospective students?

29. How can staff intervisitation be used to increase mutual understanding and articulation?

30. How can staff interparticipation and exchange be employed effectively?

#### POTENTIAL OUTCOME

31. How can students be guided into the most appropriate selection of institutions and programs?

32. How can the high proportion of failure among competent students be appraised and eliminated?

33. How can student lack of interest and withdrawal be appraised and corrected?

34. How can more stimulating and effective study assignments be fostered to replace busywork?

35. How can students be stimulated to take increasing responsibility for their own education?

36. How can teachers be helped to see themselves as directors of learning?

37. How can all the resources of the institution be brought to bear on the learning tasks of individual students?

38. How can the college focus its best teaching on the most critical time, that is, when the student first enters college?

39. How can higher education be prevented from overlapping secondary education? It may well be that schools and colleges have more in common than some people think. Certainly there is much in which they can cooperate. This is not to say that cooperation will mean fewer problems, but that cooperative action and mutual understanding can improve the prospect of finding solutions.

There is much to be done to effect school-college articulation, and the task is at hand. Responsibility rests with him who senses the need for it. The time is past when those who see the import of the task can say, "You do it." Whoever sees the task must assign it to himself.

This, then, is an appraisal of the school-college articulation task. While there are many, many substantial and objective sides to the task, the essence of it lies in intangibles. The first fruits of more effective articulation are insights into the improvability of the school-college relationship, into the reduction of the specialization paradox, and into more effective means of capitalizing the brainpower of our citizenry. These are the insights that make progress possible in education. These will accrue from ventures in mutual understanding.

## NDEA in Denver

WITH financial assistance under the National Defense Education Act (NDEA), Denver citizens and educators are carrying out many of their long-range plans for vitalizing and improving instruction in science, mathematics, and foreign languages. New equipment is arriving and being put to immediate use by enthusiastic teachers and pupils.

Several years ago, Denver Public Schools, following their policy of continually reexamining the curriculum and revising it when necessary to meet changing needs, faced the task of equipping all schools—86 elementary, 15 junior high, and 8 senior high schools—for expanded pro-

grams and functional methods of teaching. NDEA aid, under Title III, is enabling them to carry out their programs more quickly than they would otherwise have been able to.

Denver schools have always offered foreign language courses in the secondary schools, and in 1952 they initiated an experimental language program in elementary grades. After an educational television station was made a part of the school system, educators made plans to expand the teaching of Spanish and French to all children, beginning at grade 5: Master teachers would conduct lessons over television; after each telecast, classroom teachers would follow up

with drills and reviews. Children learning either French or Spanish through this aural-oral approach would acquire the ability to communicate with ease in the elementary grades, take enriched and accelerated courses in the secondary grades, and be ready for college-level courses by grade 12. Denver schools now have the equipment necessary to carry out such a program.

For many years science has also been a prescribed part of the elementary social studies program, but because schools have had little equipment for demonstration or experimentation, instruction has been to a great extent based on textbooks. Now, more elementary schools can make science instruction functional and suited to the times.

*Continued on p. 27*

# Organization for Instruction in the Elementary Schools



By STUART E. DEAN, *Specialist, Elementary School Organization and Administration*

HOW MANY ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS are organized on the basis of one teacher per classroom, that is, with one teacher teaching all subjects to a class? How many are on a departmentalized basis, with each subject taught by a specialist in that subject? Have any trends toward reorganization become apparent? What current developments bear on the question of what is the best organization?

To answer these and many other questions, the Office of Education has recently conducted a national survey (as part of a larger survey—see box) of organization for instruction in grades 1 through 8 in public elementary schools. Grades 7 and 8 organized as parts of junior high schools are not included in the survey.

In soliciting information on organization for instruction, we asked respondents to indicate what type of basic classroom organization prevailed in their elementary schools by checking one of the following items on a questionnaire:

- 1 teacher per classroom
- multigraded
- departmentalized
- completely departmentalized
- other

To make sure that all respondents interpreted the term "multigraded" in the same way, we defined it on the questionnaire as "... the type of elementary school class in which the pupils are not identified by any standard grade level and which includes more than one grade usually provided for in the standard grade system. This class may or may not have the same teacher for more than one year."

We grouped separately the responses for grades 1-6 and those for grades 7-8.

A summary of the findings for the Nation as a whole shows that in more than three-fourths of the schools grades 1 to 6 are organized on the 1-teacher-per-classroom basis, and that only about one-tenth are partly or completely departmentalized. Grades 7 and 8 in slightly less than three-fourths of the schools are departmentalized (see table.)

Summaries of the findings on organization by population group and by region closely parallel the national summary of practices.

From these facts and figures two major conclusions may be drawn. In the school year 1958-59 for grades 1 to 6 the preponderant type was the 1-teacher-per-classroom, with little departmentalization. In contrast, for elementary school grades 7 and 8 departmentalization predominated, almost evenly divided between partial and complete.

These are the facts now; but with increasing demands for change, what of the future?

In considering school organization, we must recognize that the decisions made reflect the values of the persons responsible for making policy and the beliefs of the community about

what is most important in the education of children. If subject mastery is considered paramount, then school organization will reflect that value; if the full development of children is considered paramount, then organization will reflect that value. But whatever the goal, a local school and community must freely exercise its best judgment in making a decision on organization for instruction.

Some schools now face a decision. Because many peo-

SPRINGBOARD for this article is a survey the Office of Education made in 1958 of the organization and administration of public elementary schools. The survey covered cities with a population of 2,500 or more. Although it sought primarily a national picture, it was designed to permit analysis by size of city (group I, population of 100,000 and over; II, 25,000 to 99,999; III, 10,000 to 24,999; and IV, 2,500 to 9,999) and by geographical region (northeast, north central, south, and west). Within these eight subgroups the Office selected at random, from a universe of 4,284 cities, a sample of 555.

The study gathered data on much more than the subject of this article. It gathered data also on organization by grade; on nursery schools, kindergartens, and primary units; on length of school day and year; on schedules; on policies of promotion, grouping, and reporting; on assistance to instructional programs, intensity of the teacher's day, use of aides, and use of substandard teachers; on autonomy of the individual school; on school-community relations; and on the administrative problems of the principal.

A 100-percent response, plus a sampling technique that insures a 5-percent level of confidence, makes the findings a reliable indication of what goes on in the elementary schools of the Nation.

Just now off the press, the final report, *Elementary School Administration and Organization* (OE-23006), by Stuart E. Dean, is available from the Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., for 55 cents.



ple with widely differing points of view are urging schools to reorganize the elementary grades so that they may be taught by subject specialists and so that they may be more responsive to the new requirements in education, organization for instruction has become a controversial issue.<sup>1</sup>

The problem growing out of the controversy is complex because both plans of organization—1 teacher per classroom and departmentalization—have some merits and some faults. There is no single right or wrong answer. There is, however, danger of oversimplifying the issue, of abandoning the psychological studies being made of child growth and development or of not using the knowledge such studies have made available, and of casting aside the basic purposes and programs of elementary education. Furthermore some educators fear that the leaders of the movement urging rapid change in the heat of controversy may be taking a shortsighted view of the eventual effects on the children.

#### Schools in the Office of Education study had these kinds of instructional organization

	Grades 1-6	Grades 7-8
Departmentalized.....	10.6	71.7
Completely.....	0.7	39.0
Partly.....	9.9	32.7
1 teacher per classroom.....	76.5	19.5
Multigraded.....	2.4	2.1
Other.....	4.4	6.7
Not indicated.....	6.1	

What is needed then is a calm and temperate approach to the problem, for intelligent decisions will demand full measures of judgment, intelligence, and scientific investigation. School and community officials facing the decision should keep two basic points clearly in mind. First, it

<sup>1</sup>Specialists in the Elementary Schools Section of the Office of Education have recently prepared a statement summarizing the issues and the underlying elements: *Elementary School Organization . . . What Direction Shall It Take?* (OE-23095.)

Table 1.—Instructional organization in public elementary schools, by population group, Office of Education study, 1958

Type of organization	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV
<b>GRADES 1-6</b>				
1 teacher per classroom.....	74.5%	74.7%	77.9%	76.4%
Departmentalized:				
Partial.....	16.0	12.0	9.3	9.7
Complete.....			2.5	.4
Multigraded.....	1.9	2.7		3.0
Other.....	3.8	6.7	2.8	4.6
Not specified.....	3.8	3.9	7.5	5.9
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>GRADES 7-8</b>				
1 teacher per classroom.....	26.1		17.0	20.6
Departmentalized:				
Partial.....	47.8	38.5	44.1	31.1
Complete.....	21.7	53.8	22.0	40.2
Multigraded.....	4.4	7.7		1.9
Other.....			16.9	6.2
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 2.—Instructional organization in public elementary schools, by region, Office of Education study, 1958

Type of organization	North-east	North Central	South	West
<b>GRADES 1-6</b>				
1 teacher per classroom.....	81.4%	71.8%	76.6%	77.9%
Departmentalized:				
Partial.....	11.1	13.4	7.7	5.7
Complete.....	1.1	1.5		
Multigraded.....		.9	4.3	5.2
Other.....	2.1	2.8	7.4	5.1
Not specified.....	4.3	9.6	4.0	6.1
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
<b>GRADES 7-8</b>				
1 teacher per classroom.....	17.2	16.2	27.0	9.6
Departmentalized:				
Partial.....	20.6	38.5	26.4	55.6
Complete.....	57.7	40.0	30.6	31.6
Multigraded.....	4.5		3.2	
Other.....		5.3	12.8	3.2
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

would be foolhardy to base a decision on extreme views or oversimplification; a clearcut, neat, decisive pattern of either-or logic could lead to educational harm to the children. Second, preoccupation with the organizational pattern could lead to an educational oversight. The structural plan of operation of a school is an important element in any educa-

tional program, but it is not an end in itself; its value lies in the effectiveness it contributes to the improvement of the quality of classroom education. Since the teaching-learning relationship is the heart of any school program, campaigns to improve education should be focused on the classroom, not on the administrative design.



# ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERN OF THE NATION'S PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

By EDMUND A. FORD, *Specialist for  
Secondary School Organization and Administration*



**I**S THERE one "best way" by which the secondary schools of our Nation should be organized in order to make possible

the most effective program of instruction? With reference to the total public school (elementary and secondary) organizational pattern in common numerical terms, what is to be gained from a 6-6 division as opposed to a 6-3-3 division? How many communities should continue to provide their children's schooling within an 8-4 pattern of organization?

Not since the Office of Education released the data from its 1951-52 study of secondary schools have we known the number of schools in each of the five organizational patterns and the total enrollment in each. But now preliminary data for 1958-59, subject to minor revisions and corrections, are available to us. A preliminary release gives some of the most meaningful data collected by the Office directly from our 24,000 secondary schools.

When we search for answers to questions like those raised in the first paragraph, we recognize that a knowledge of the status quo of the schools is a necessary starting point. But even the facts are subject to different interpretations, and most of us recog-

nize that no single type of organization is the best for all schools in all communities. This point was recently acknowledged by James B. Conant and Will French in speeches before the convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in Portland, Oreg. Even though they agree that uniformity is not our aim and that unique problems exist in some communities, they differ sharply in the organization plans they prefer for the majority of schools: Dr. Conant favors the 6-6 plan; Dr. French, the 6-3-3.

Although it is not our concern here to study the organization of elementary schools, we can hardly avoid noting in our data a rough index of elementary school organization. Obviously the growth of the 6-year school is a dominant trend.

Ever since the 1920's, when the reorganization of schools away from the traditional 8-4 pattern became widespread, investigators attempting to categorize the secondary schools have encountered one dilemma: reorganization has followed such a diversity of patterns that an unmanageable maze of perhaps 15 distinct forms of secondary organization would result if the investigators did not combine certain similar organizations into basic types. Even so, they face a persistent question: What are the soundest criteria for establishing the four or five most basic classifications of these patterns? For example, is the high school in a 6-2-4 system unique or is it quite similar to the one in an 8-4

system? Or perhaps to the one in a 6-3-3 system?

Certainly, school organization is far from being static, as a glance at the graphs indicates. New patterns are constantly being tried in some local systems, and nearly any bizarre organization of pupils that the reader can name exists somewhere in the United States. Some sound promising; others less so. (It was not without difficulty that we determined the classification of the secondary schools in Community X, where we found a 3-4-5 pattern.)

## Classification of schools

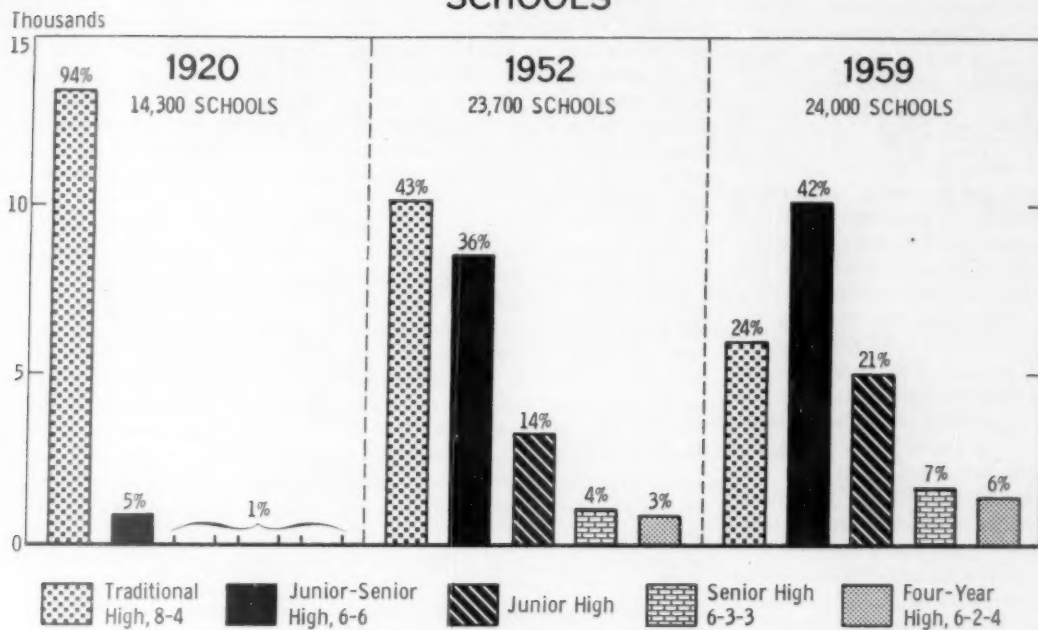
Considering these problems and many others familiar to school administrators, we have established a classification of secondary schools that comprises the following five major categories:

*Traditional high school* (8-4 system)—a 4-year school preceded by an 8-year elementary school. No reorganization has ever taken place. *Combined junior-senior high school* (predominantly 6-6 system and 7-5 system)—a reorganized school in which the junior and senior high schools are combined under one principal.

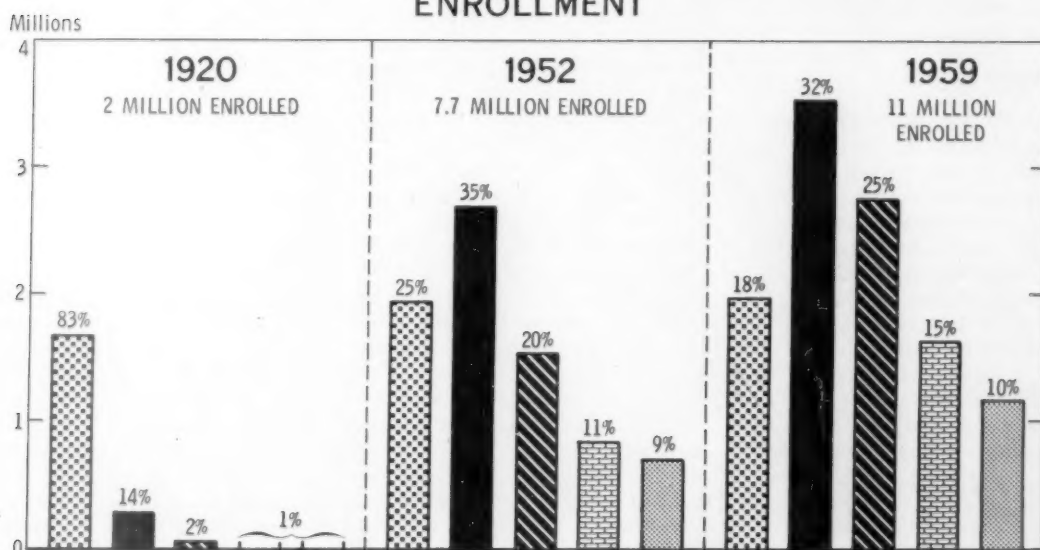
*Junior high school* (predominantly 6-3-3 system and 6-2-4 system)—a reorganized school in which the junior high grades are grouped separately under one principal. It usually contains grades 7-8-9, but there are numerous exceptions.

# TYPES OF ORGANIZATION OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

## SCHOOLS



## ENROLLMENT



*Senior high school* (6-3-3 system)—a reorganized school in which the last 3 years are grouped separately under one principal.

*Four-year high school* (6-2-4 system)—a 4-year school similar to the traditional high school in organization but with important differences. The system has been reorganized, often in our larger cities, to include 2-year junior high schools.

Accounting for all our pupils in grades 7 and 8 remains one of our most perplexing problems. Many of our seventh- and eighth-graders are enrolled in elementary schools and therefore are not included in this study, which accounts for only the pupils enrolled in some kind of a secondary school. This study includes all pupils in the United States beyond grade 8, pupils in grades 7 and 8 only if enrolled in junior high schools, and no pupils below grade 7.

Historical patterns will be sketched briefly here in order to provide base-lines for a meaningful interpretation of the current data; but the completed study, *Statistics of Public Secondary School, 1958-59*, will analyze all pertinent data in detail. It will be ready later this year for publication by the Office of Education.

### Highlights

So many significant observations can be made on the matrix of data compiled for just the two graphs on these pages that it is a problem to select the most pertinent. An attempt has been made to make the graphs as self-explanatory as possible. They have been designed and placed so that they can be quickly compared. Thus, a glance at the extreme right of the chart shows that only 6 percent of our high schools are organized in a 6-2-4 pattern, but that 10 percent of all high school students are enrolled in them. The average size of such schools, therefore, can be estimated to be 850 students—large by any measurement, but particularly in contrast to the average size—330 students—of the traditional 4-year school in the 8-4

pattern. Even 330 students, however, represents a tremendous increase for the traditional high school, which in 1952 had an average of only 190 students.

The sharpest decrease is found in the number of traditional (8-4) high schools—they made up only 24 percent of the total in 1959 as opposed to 43 percent in 1952. As indicated in the foregoing paragraph, however, those that remain are growing larger; they still have 18 percent of all students, compared to the 25 percent they had in 1952, when they were nearly twice as numerous.

One of the most interesting observations is the actual decline since 1952 in the percent of students enrolled in the junior-senior (6-6) high school—from 35 to 32 percent; at the same time, the number of such schools increased, and they now surpass by far any other single organizational type in both total number and total enrollment. Yet the junior high school has shown the most positive growth in enrollment, climbing from 20 percent of the total in 1952 to 25 percent in 1959. In other words, by interpolating from junior-senior high school data we can determine that virtually half of our total secondary enrollment is composed of junior high students.

Total enrollment in public secondary schools has, of course, increased very nearly as the Office predicted—to a rather staggering total of 11 million as opposed to the 7.7 million in 1952 and the previous alltime high of 7.5 million in 1938. This increase is surely due in some small part to the increasing number of seventh- and eighth-graders enrolled in newly organized junior high schools, since this unknown number formerly would have been housed in 8-year elementary schools.

The total number of public secondary schools has remained surprisingly constant since 1930. The alltime high of 25,000 secondary schools was reached in 1938; there were nearly 24,000 in 1952, and slightly more than 24,000 in 1959.

Two opposite and nearly equal forces have been at work here.

Thousands of small high schools that were operating in 1938 have been closed and their students shifted to larger schools through reorganization and consolidation. Yet simultaneously, as a result of the increased birth rate of the past 20 years and the movement of the population to suburbia, thousands of new high schools have been constructed in vacant pastures and cornfields to accommodate whole new communities. The one development seems to have balanced the other, but we cannot assume that the secondary schools of 1938 and those of 1959, for all their similarity in numbers, have much in common substantively.

It is evident, then, that for the first time in the history of our public secondary schools the combined junior-senior high is the dominant school, having surpassed the traditional high school both in numbers and in enrollment. The traditional high school, however, has been eclipsed even more than we first suspected. Although its relative position varies slightly depending on whether we emphasize the number of schools or the number of students, it is a matter of record that separate junior high schools now enroll the second greatest number of students in all schools, 7 percent more than are enrolled in traditional high schools.

In fact, the strong upsurge of junior high schools in the past 7 years, both in number of schools and in size of enrollment, may well be the dominant trend revealed by our study. Eighty-two percent of our total secondary-school population now attends a school having a junior high.

Surely the tremendous implications of this significant figure can no longer be ignored by the curriculum specialists and the teacher-training institutions who have dichotomized public education, far past the limits of reality, into "elementary" and "high school." Despite the ogre of the Carnegie unit, our dominant school organization today is no more the traditional 8-4 type than it is the one-room school. Both are anachronisms.

# Everybody Goes to School

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NOVEMBER 6-12, 1960

**S**TRENGTHENING THE SCHOOLS FOR THE 60's is the theme of [the 40th annual salute to education. There's a theme for each day of the week, too, to remind us what the marks of a strong school are:

Nov. 6 Serious students

Nov. 7 Interested parents

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Miss Eaton is Specialist for Foreign Languages

Miss Mahar, Specialist for School and Children's Libraries

## Selection and Organization of Library Materials

### FOR MODERN LANGUAGE PROGRAMS



Esther M. Eaton



Mary Helen  
Mahar

**T**HROUGHOUT the country elementary and secondary schools are expanding or organizing programs in foreign language instruction. And throughout the country school librarians are supporting these programs by adding to their library collections films, tapes, and recordings as well as books and other printed materials in foreign languages.

Librarians who have had little experience in selecting and organizing such materials are facing new problems in making their libraries serve foreign language programs. To these librarians we want to suggest methods of serving language programs, offer information on selections and sources of materials, and describe methods of classifying, cataloging, and shelving books and other materials in foreign languages. Since publications in English on the life and customs of foreign countries or on methods of teaching languages present no unusual problems to school librarians, we are concerned here only with collections of materials in modern foreign languages.

#### New emphases in language teaching

During the decades when 2 years of language instruction was the standard, the majority of our public schools stressed reading and writing alone and paid little attention to understanding and speaking. Since World War II, however, criticism of the inability of U.S. citizens to use the modern languages they studied in school, along with the increased national need for men and women with language skills, has led to new emphases in language study, stressing the development of a reasonable proficiency in each of the language skills.

School librarians who understand the new emphases and the needs of teachers and pupils in this rapidly changing field can help make language programs effective. Five emphases are particularly important.

1. *A longer sequence of study is provided.* Learning a language is a slow and cumulative process, as we know from learning our own language. The sequence in learning a second language follows logically that of learning the first—that is, to begin by developing the skills of understanding and speaking and later to develop those

of reading and writing. The pupil learns to say only what he has heard. Gradually the teacher introduces reading, and at first the pupil reads only what he has heard and said. Finally he learns to write what he has heard, said, and read. The teacher determines his readiness for each of these stages and helps the pupil attain proficiency in these skills over a long period of time.

2. *The study of a single language should be continuous* from the beginning grade through grade 12, with a recommended minimum of 4 years in secondary school in addition to as much study as possible prior to grade 9. A pupil will acquire proficiency in direct proportion to the effort he devotes to developing the language skills.

3. *Newer methods and techniques have been devised.* Through the audio-lingual approach to foreign language study the pupil learns and even overlearns the basic structural patterns of the new language. He hears and repeats dialogs on subjects suitable to his age and interests.

The teacher introduces the printed word following this prereading stage. Newer techniques are proving effective in teaching pupils to read a foreign language without first having to translate into the vernacular. Newer techniques are also being used to teach pupils the skill of writing, which they develop on the patterns they have memorized. Gradually they apply these patterns in free expression.

4. *Newer instruments of measuring language skills are needed.* These newer emphases in turn demand achievement and proficiency tests related to the methods and materials used. Already much greater use is being made of audiolingual tests, and teachers are finding audiovisual materials important tools in testing. Much work lies ahead, however, in developing measuring instruments.

5. *The retraining of many teachers is necessary.* Summer institutes under NDEA, inservice programs, and regular summer sessions offered by colleges and universities are meeting the professional needs of many teachers of foreign languages. Many other teachers are studying independently. For all teachers seeking to improve their professional skills, librarians can provide valuable service by making professional materials available.



In 1958, there were only about 60 high school language laboratories in the United States; in 1960, according to Office of Education estimates, there are more than 500. Undoubtedly many of these new laboratories were made possible by matching funds provided under title III of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 for the purchase of instructional equipment and materials to be used to strengthen the teaching of modern foreign languages.

As schools acquire new instructional equipment, school librarians and modern language teachers become responsible for cooperatively selecting tapes, records, films, and filmstrips for use with it. Together they should evaluate audiovisual materials before buying them. Usually they can obtain samples from dealers to preview or audition.

Audiovisual materials, like other supplementary materials, are usually circulated through the library. But whether they are used in the library, the modern language laboratory, or the classroom, the materials must be centrally organized and made available to all teachers at all times. The librarian should develop and maintain files on materials available, professional selection tools, and catalogs distributed by dealers in audiovisual materials.

### Criteria for selection

Although the basic principles of suitability followed in selecting library materials apply to foreign language materials, special criteria should be established for foreign language materials. A few suggestions may be helpful:

- ▶ Materials should be in one language. Multi-language books or books with translations violate the modern theories of learning to speak a language.
- ▶ Attention should be given to printed materials that can be read aloud or dramatized, particularly in the elementary grades.
- ▶ Reference books in foreign languages, including dictionaries, should be authoritative. Librarians should not select basic tools without consulting language teachers.
- ▶ Good editions of the recognized and classical literature of foreign countries, in the languages of these countries, are preferable to translations of books originally written in English.
- ▶ Foreign language recordings and tapes to be used in instruction should be based on sound principles of learning.

### Selection methods

There are a number of reasons why the school librarian and the foreign language teacher should cooperate in selecting books and other materials for foreign language courses, as for other courses in the curriculum. One reason, however, is predominant: Each can contribute from her own special knowledge. For example, the librarian knows sources of materials, criteria of selection, basic selection tools; the teacher knows the scope and sequence of the foreign language program to be served and her own and her pupils' needs. Moreover teachers

are much more likely to use materials they have helped select.

Selection should be a continuing process throughout the school year; this principle applies also to all courses of the curriculum but it is especially pertinent to the modern language field since many new materials and many new types of materials are being published and produced.

Basic selection tools for school libraries do not usually include many materials on foreign languages. There are, however, many sources of information on current ideas, methods, and instructional aids for the modern language teacher.

"Bibliography of School Library Materials in Science, Mathematics, Modern Languages, and Guidance . . . and How To Use Them," a list of lists and articles originally published in *School Life* (January-February, 1959) and now available as a reprint, brought together the major lists on foreign language materials at that time. Subsequently, the Modern Language Association of America has published *Materials List for Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages*, a list of books and audio-visual aids for use in teaching French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish. Professional journals regularly carry information on materials.

But even with these aids, librarians and teachers need to develop competence in selecting foreign language materials. For example, some U.S. book dealers import foreign books, many of them of high quality, for children. Nevertheless, such books sometimes present difficulties to U.S. children studying a foreign language. For example, the German vocabulary of third-grade German children is much larger than the vocabulary of U.S. third-grade children studying German, although their interests may be comparable. Books intended for primary grade children in foreign countries may be on a vocabulary level of 7th or 8th grade U.S. children in a 10-year foreign language sequence and therefore incompatible with their interests. The problem, then, is to find material of interest to children at a given age level but in language simple enough for them to understand.

School librarians will find evaluative lists and catalogs of publishers and dealers in foreign books useful as a guide in selecting books. By reviewing *Publishers Trade List Annual*, librarians can identify American publishers of books in foreign languages suitable for instruction in elementary and secondary schools. In addition, many U.S. dealers in foreign books are listed in the *American Book Trade Directory* in the section "Dealers in Foreign Books" and are arranged by dealers in books of all languages, followed by those specializing in one or a few languages. The catalogs of these publications and dealers will help librarians and teachers become familiar with the types of books available and find books they need.

Teachers need no longer search for materials in foreign countries, since American dealers in foreign books have or can obtain the most appropriate imported mate-

rials for use with foreign language students in the United States. In selecting imported materials, teachers should apply the criteria recommended for materials published in this country.

Periodicals and newspapers in foreign languages provide additional reading matter for language students. Some periodicals and newspapers in foreign languages are published in the United States for the foreign born or groups speaking foreign languages; a few are published especially for students. Periodicals published in foreign countries are obtainable through American magazine agencies. *Ulrich's Periodicals Directory* lists American and foreign publications by subject. *Source Materials for Secondary School Teachers of Foreign Languages* (OE-27001) also lists periodical publications on pages 10 and 11.

### Classification and cataloging

Materials in foreign languages in school libraries can be classified by languages, according to the Dewey Decimal System. The principles of classifying, cataloging, and shelving audiovisual materials are the same as those for books. The procedures described below can be applied to audiovisual materials.

Designations of language with classification numbers are simple devices for keeping all books in each language together. For example drama in French can be classified FR 842; in German, GER 832; and in Spanish, SP 862. Through the use of these designations, shelf cards for books can be arranged under the language designations by fiction and nonfiction, so that all shelf cards for books in each language are together in the shelf list, and all books in each language are shelved together. Foreign language dictionaries are best shelved with the general reference collection. Books in English used in modern language courses are best classified with the general collection of books in English. The shelving of books in foreign languages should follow the pattern of the shelf list. All foreign language collections should be shelved by language, in the same section of the library. Here is an example of shelving foreign language books:

Books in French						
Fr A	Fr B	Fr 448	Fr 520	Fr 630	Fr 842	Fr 921
(Fiction)		(Non-Fiction)				

Books in German						
Ger A	Ger B	Ger 438	Ger 520	Ger 630	Ger 832	Ger 921
(Fiction)		(Non-Fiction)				

Cataloging books in foreign languages does not present insurmountable obstacles to librarians who lack knowledge of foreign languages. In many foreign language books, particularly those written especially for language instruction, prefaces in English describe the content. Foreign language dictionaries and printed catalog cards can often provide the librarian with enough information to catalog a book. Teachers usually are pleased to assist librarians in cataloging by interpreting the contents of books.

When the subject matter of books in foreign languages has been determined, they are cataloged in the same manner as books in English. The librarian can be helpful to the searcher by using such subject headings as the following: German language—readers; Italian language—drama; Spanish language—biography. The cards of books in foreign language can be interfiled with cards in the main catalog or kept in separate files by languages, depending on the preference of the school.

### School library lists

Teachers of foreign languages should have lists of books and other library materials for their pupils to use. It is helpful, too, if books listed are graded in difficulty. In determining the level of difficulty of books in foreign languages, librarians generally enlist the aid of foreign language teachers.

Since pupils in every grade usually represent a wide range of reading ability, some books should be listed under more than one level. Teachers using the list can guide pupils in selecting books within a given level. Many have found psychological value in this method as a pupil may refuse books below his grade level.

Mimeographed lists of books and other materials that are available in the school library and are used in foreign language courses are convenient aids to librarians, teachers, and pupils. As books and materials are added and discarded, titles should be added to or deleted from the lists. Every 2 or 3 years the lists should be remade.

### Conclusion

Modern methods of foreign language instruction are a compelling study for both librarians and modern language teachers. Librarians can assist teachers seeking information on new concepts in language teaching by providing professional materials such as books and journals, bibliographies, and curriculum guides.

Librarians with limited budgets will find rich resources in the various bulletins cited in this article. Cooperative planning in the selection and use of library materials will do much to aid in the organization and improvement of modern foreign language programs.

### Suggested sources

Available from R. R. Bowker Co., 62 W. 45th Street, New York 36, N.Y.

*American Book Trade Directory*  
*Publishers Trade List Annual*  
*Ulrich's Periodicals Directory*

Available from Modern Language Association, Foreign Lan-

guage Program, Research Center, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York 11, N.Y.

Alden, Douglas W., editor, *Materials List for Use by Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages*. 50 cents.

Available from Publications Inquiry Unit, Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington 25, D.C.

Johnston, Marjorie C., and Eaton, Esther M., *Source Materials for Secondary School Teachers of Foreign Languages*. Circular 509, revised January 1960. Free. (OE-17001)

Johnston, Marjorie C., and Remer, Ilo, *References on Foreign Languages in the Elementary School*. Circular No. 495, Revised June 1959. Free.

Mahar, Mary Helen, and Fisher, Gerald B., "School Library Materials in Science, Mathematics, Foreign Languages and

Guidance . . . and How to Use Them." Reprint *School Life*, January-February 1959. Free.

*Materials in Russian of Possible Use in High School Classes*. Circular 592, July 1959. Free.

Available from Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.

Johnston, Marjorie C., *Modern Foreign Languages in the High School*. Office of Education Bulletin 1958, No. 16. \$1.

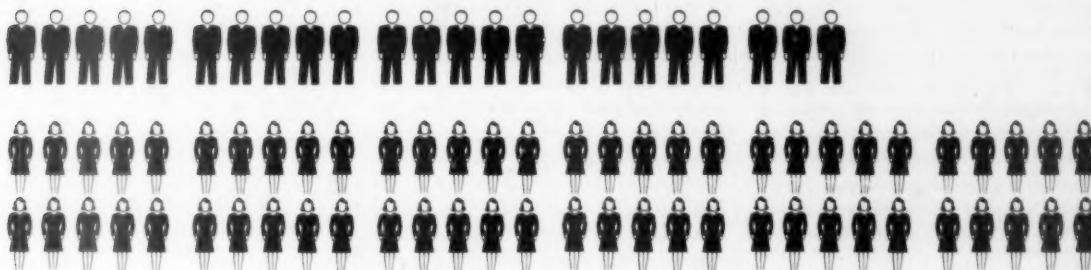
Johnston, Marjorie C., and Seerley, Catherine C., *Foreign Language Laboratories in Schools and Colleges*. Office of Education Bulletin 1959, No. 3. 35 cents.

O'Connor, Patricia, *Modern Foreign Languages in High School—Pre-reading Instruction*, 1960. 25 cents. (OE-27000)

Parker, William, *The National Interest and Foreign Languages*, 1957. UN 34/No. 30. 65 cents.

## What Happened to Any 100 TEACHERS Between Spring and Fall, 1959

### 83 Stayed on the Job



### 6 Moved to Another Teaching Job



### 11 Left the Profession



AT THE OPENING of school in the fall of 1958, more than 1 in every 5 of the 1.3 million public school staff (21.3 percent or 284,000 teachers) had been hired since school opened the previous fall. Of these, 150,000 had never taught in public school before,

about 57,000 were reentering the teaching profession, and 77,000 had transferred from one school system to another since the fall of 1957.

About 137,000 of the teachers hired during the year were taking the places of teachers who had left the profession since the previous fall. On the average, public school systems, therefore, had a separation rate of about 1 in every 6 teachers (17 percent), made up of a loss rate of about 1 in every 9 teachers who left the profession (10.9

percent), and a transfer rate of about 1 in every 16 who went to another school district (6.1 percent) in the 12-month period from the fall of 1957 to the fall of 1958.

For further information consult *Teacher Turnover in the Public Schools, 1957-58* (OE-23002), obtainable from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., for 30 cents.—Emery M. Foster, Chief, Research Studies and Surveys Section.

# ad Minutes

Briefly noted ---  
for the busy School Administrator

Material for this department is prepared in the School Administration Branch, Division of State and Local School Systems, by H. D. Evans, Jr. Contributors are the specialists in the Branch—this month, Peter P. McGraw, Elmer C. Deering, Winston L. Roesch, Clayton D. Hutchins, and Allan R. Lichtenberger.

**Personnel Accounting Handbooks.** A Washington conference is scheduled for August to plan for two new handbooks to guide school districts and State departments of education in accounting for pupil and school staff personnel. The new handbooks will complement the four basic educational records and reports publications developed cooperatively during the past few years by the States, national educational organizations, and the Office of Education to provide comparable data through the use of standard terms, definitions, and units of measures.

The four publications now available from the U.S. Government Printing Office are:

1. *The Common Core of State Educational Information*, containing the

standard terminology, definitions, and units of measure considered basic for all educational reporting. (Bul. 1953, No. 8) 40 cents.

2. *Financial Accounting for Local and State School Systems*, providing standard receipt-and-expenditure items for use in school finance accounting. (Bul. 1957, No. 4) \$1.

3. *Property Accounting for Local and State School Systems*, providing standard facility and equipment items and definitions used in school property accounting. (Bul. 1959, No. 22) 75 cents.

4. *Financial Accounting for School Activities*, a guide to accounting for school activity funds. Supplemental to Handbook 2. (Bul. 1959, No. 21) 50 cents.

**Coding for Machines.** An initial problem facing school districts installing data processing machines is that of getting the information to be punched on the processing cards into machine-usable form. Coding has to be developed that classifies this information. A group experienced in machine data processing in school districts of various sizes and in State departments of education met in Washington, D.C., May 9-14, with representatives from the Office of Education, in the first national conference of its kind, to explore problems of coding educational information for machine processing. The Office of Education is making the suggested codes and methods developed at this meeting available to State departments of education, and, through them, to interested local school districts.

**Regional Councils.** Three groups of States are forming regional councils to further the understanding of educational information programs, including the efforts toward the improvement of statistical services under Section 1009, Title X, of the NDEA. In an effort to improve educational information and research in general, neighboring States will exchange ideas and information on practices that have proved effective in collecting, analyzing, and using data obtained from the schools. One objective is to provide the local schools with com-



Participants in the coding conference, seated, left to right: James J. O'Connor (Remington-Rand Corp.), Tad Nakano (Hawaii), John Horan (N.Y.), George Cargin (IBM Corp.), Orson Houghton (Colo.), G. G. Vaniman (Calif.). Standing, left to right: George T. Whitcomb (N.Y.), Leo G. Dillenschneider (N. Mex.), Robert Davis (Tenn.), Jerry N. Wad-

dell (OE), Robert Beynon (Ohio), Paul L. Reason (Ind.), Paul F. Johnston (Iowa), Paul R. Fillion (N.H.), Charles K. Pullen (Tenn.), John F. Freeman (Tenn.), Margaret Griffin (N.Y.), Albert F. Merz, Jr. (N.Y.), Albin R. Faber (Fla.), James Kinsman (Ariz.), Buford Moulton (Fla.), William Katzenmeyer (Mich.), Willis Kern (Ohio), Peter P. McGraw (OE).



parable and timely information for sound planning of their education programs—facts on pupils and teachers, organization and curriculum, sites and classrooms and equipment, money received and money spent.

The first of the organizations formed, the Northeastern States Council on Educational Research and Statistics, is composed of Connecticut, Delaware, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, and New York. So far this group has had two meetings. Midwestern States, Colorado, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, South Dakota, and Wisconsin, are holding their first meeting in Des Moines on May 23 and 24, 1960. A third group, of Western States—South Dakota, North Dakota, Arizona, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Oklahoma, Wyoming—is to have its first meeting in Santa Fe in August.

**Forecast for Finance.** One hundred thirty-four specialists in school finance attended the third annual meeting of the NEA Committee on Educational Finance in St. Louis, April 21–23. In their presentations and discussions, the specialists made several forecasts for financing education in the years ahead. Here are two.

1. *Variable foundation program.*—There is a growing interest in State foundation programs for school support that embody "reward for effort" principles. "Foundation" program allowances establish levels of educational service regarded as basic and necessary for every child in the State. To encourage and reward districts financing higher than standard educational programs, States with a variable foundation program would increase allowances.

2. *Increased State support.*—For the past few years, the proportion of school revenue derived from State sources has remained reasonably constant at or near 40 percent of the total. This plateau was reached following a long period in which the State percentage rose rapidly. Several school finance specialists in St. Louis predicted that the percentage from State sources would again turn upward and that the average for the Nation would increase to 50 percent or

more in the next few years. This percentage would be affected by any significant changes in the proportion supplied by the Federal Government.

**School Profile.** Herricks Senior High School, New Hyde Park, N.Y., has a folder, *Quality Education at Your Door*, that describes characteristics of its educational program, teaching staff, student body, guidance services, school organization, and community. The school sends this profile of itself and its staff along with student applications to college directors of admission. Potential employers, parents, and, of course, students and teachers also find the clear, concise information helpful. A sample copy of *Quality Education* may be obtained from Thomas Langley, the principal.

**Student Loans.** College-bound high school seniors who want specific information about the student loan program of the National Defense Education Act should write to the officials of the college of their choice. Since schools that put aside funds for freshmen are making loan commitments now, students who want a fall loan should apply to the participating institutions without delay. Freshmen got 20,751 of the 68,158 loans last fall. The loans averaged about \$500. At present 1,360 institutions, representing over 80 percent of the full-time U.S. enrollment, are participating in the program.

**Guiding Principles.** To arrive at a philosophy of education is a difficult task, and to put that philosophy to work in a school is even more difficult. The Highline Public School System (enrollment about 20,000) in suburban Seattle is attempting to do both. An educational charter setting forth a school and community philosophy of education has been prepared through the cooperative efforts of hundreds from the homes and schools of the community. To bridge the gap between philosophy and action, school officials have printed a sheet containing 12 guiding principles to help to give a sense of direction to and define the scope of the educational program in the Highline district. Three of these principles are quoted here.

We believe that our educational program must be constantly evaluated and subject to continuous change based upon research, adequate observation, and careful analysis of changing community needs. Final determination for important changes shall rest with the board of directors.

We believe that the quality of education will be determined principally by the effectiveness of the persons who teach. Suitable physical environment, teaching aids, and conditions must also be provided.

We believe the need for education and development never ends during an individual's lifetime. Opportunities for adult education should be provided in our community to the end that individuals desiring to may acquire new skills and appreciations for intellectual, cultural, homemaking, and vocational improvements or wise use of leisure.

#### Bond sales in the United States for public schools, quarter ending Mar. 31, 1960

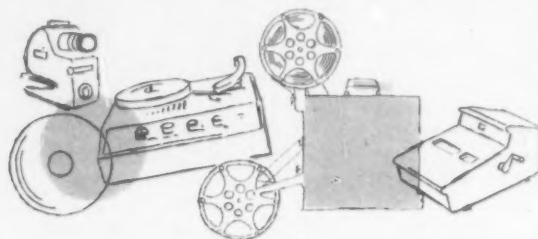
Despite some lag in the reporting by investment bankers to our source of information, the Investment Bankers' Association of America, enough information on the volume and distribution of bond sales is available by the end of each month to reveal current trends.

Issuing agency	Number of sales reported	Total amount sold (thousands of dollars)	Net interest rate		
			Low (percent)	Average (percent)	High (percent)
ALL.....	681	572,912	2.69	3.90	5.21
State.....	9	30,010	3.25	3.44	4.00
County.....	14	26,264	3.40	3.59	4.22
School district.....	577	439,429	2.69	3.96	5.21
City, town, township, village, etc.....	49	46,076	3.07	3.69	4.68
Authority, holding company.....	32	31,133	3.57	4.24	4.84



By GENE C. FUSCO, *Specialist, School and Community Relations*

PART II—ISSUES AND IMPLICATIONS\*



# TECHNOLOGY IN THE CLASSROOM CHALLENGES TO THE SCHOOL ADM

Fitting the new graphic techniques into education is a complicated process. It involves learning new habits, forming new attitudes, changing the system of prestige and reward, making new administrative arrangements, and altering the established pattern of the curriculum.—*Graphic Communication and the Crisis in Education*.

IF MODERN instructional tools—television, motion pictures, electronic language laboratories, teaching machines, and related media—are selected for their suitability to the teaching task at hand and intelligently handled, they may do a great deal to improve the instructional process. After all, the test of a tool is whether it makes better learning possible. As *Overview* says, a good instructional tool "will supplement, not supplant, teaching. It will compress, make vivid and extend the world of experience for the learner."<sup>1</sup> In his key position as leader of the instructional program the school administrator can either promote or hinder the educative process by providing or failing to provide a variety of instructional tools.

Persons closely associated with the audiovisual movement have drawn upon their experiences to prepare guidelines for establishing and maintaining an effective instructional materials program in the local school system. Directed to the school administrator, these guidelines include calling on professional consultants to recommend needed improvements; developing understanding on the part of school board members so that they will contribute moral and financial support; centralizing local services;

staffing the program with qualified persons; promoting careful evaluation and selection of equipment and materials; efficiently scheduling and distributing materials; providing adequate housing spaces; setting up local performance standards; and, for a school too small to provide the services needed, establishing cooperative arrangements with nearby schools. In addition, one principle is generally agreed on—that the ideal place for using a variety of instructional materials is the place where the instruction is given, usually the classroom.<sup>2</sup>

How will the "newer" educational media affect the responsibility of the school administrator for improving the instructional program? No one knows what role the new media will play in the instructional process since they are still in a developmental stage. Literature on this subject, including some reports of experimental research, indicates, however, that the problems the school administrator faces in organizing and operating an instructional materials program will be intensified and perhaps placed in a new perspective.

In a society increasingly characterized by technological advances, the shape of things to come is neither distinct nor fixed. Some persons who have studied current trends see tomorrow's classroom as characterized by automated instructional methods. Others have some reservations about mechanizing the instructional process.

Advocates of full use of the new educational media in classroom instruction maintain that technological aids offer the overworked classroom teacher relief from some routine, repetitive presentations of materials, and that,

\*Part I of this article, "The Changing Scene," appeared in the March issue.

<sup>1</sup>"Tools for Education," *Overview*, February 1960, p. 74.

<sup>2</sup>Charles F. Schuller (ed.), *The School Administrator and His Audio-Visual Program*, Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association, 1954.



INTERNATIONAL COMMUNICATIONS PHOTO

## ADMINISTRATOR

since much of the information-dissemination part of teaching would be done by technological aids, the teacher would be released to serve as a guide for learners. They maintain that the student would take greater responsibility for his own learning and that the teacher would be freer to use her critical and creative talents to individualize instruction.

One author foresees the next step in classroom technology as a combining of the media for mass instruction with the media for individual instruction, to create a system that "will hit education with a million-pound thrust."<sup>3</sup> He says that an example of what could take place is that the producer of a filmed series for a certain course and

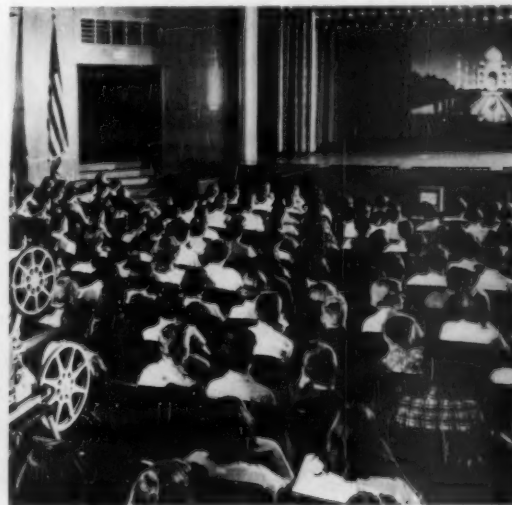
*The new technological devices can serve the instructional process in two ways: As an aid in teaching the individual student . . .*

a manufacturer of teaching machines might together develop a teaching-machine program of multiple-choice items based on the material presented by the films. The films might be projected hourly on closed-circuit television and students would work on the programmed assignments with machines located in individual instructional spaces in the school building.

Another prediction is that soon a teacher, by just turning a dial, will be able to bring to a large electroluminescent screen on the front wall of the classroom her choice of a variety of projected or televised pictures, accompanied by sound. Another is that with the help of earphones students will be able to work at prerecorded lessons suitable to their several levels of ability while the teacher, using a multiple control panel at her desk, gives direction to individual students. Still another is that the foreign-language student will be able to gauge the perfection of his pronunciation by the color intensity in an "auto-corrector." And an engineer has graphically described a sophisticated audiovisual teaching machine that "talks

<sup>3</sup> James D. Finn, "Automation and Education: III. Technology and the Instructional Process," *Audio-Visual Communication Review*, Vol. 8, No. 1, (Winter 1960).

*. . . and as a means of reaching many students at once*



back" to the student as he responds to its directions during a demonstration in a chemistry laboratory.<sup>4</sup>

Proponents of the mechanization of teaching emphasize that no new technological breakthrough is needed to bring about the instructional transformations they envision; that the present state of the communication arts makes the so-called "automated classroom" possible today.

Those who are skeptical about the desirability of mechanizing part of the instructional process or question its value call attention to the highly experimental nature of the new devices, and point to the almost total absence of learning theory to undergird use of new media. One author says that we seem to be witnessing a movement toward learning theory based on an "automatic" model of man, and expresses concern that such modifications of educational goals and procedures may subvert "ultimate" or "eternal" values.<sup>5</sup> Some decry the large financial investment and the costs of maintaining new media, especially closed-circuit television systems. Some fear that democratic values, such as the worth and full development of the individual, may be lost amid the technological devices.

Still others are concerned that mechanization may bypass essential elements of learning, such as readiness and motivation; that it may deny the student the social development to be gained through contact with human instructors; and that it may lead to regimentation and curriculum rigidity. One educator warns that if instructional television is conceived as a teacher substitute, its use may lead to "more and more mass procedures, to mechanical 'teaching,' to lock-step schedules, and to diversion of regularly available funds to pay the actors (master teachers), the full staff of supporting talents and the costs of installation and maintenance . . ."<sup>6</sup>

Regardless, however, of the projections of the enthusiastic proponents of technology in the classroom or the skepticism of the critics, instructional technology is here, and there are indications that it is here to stay. If we judge by the literature and research studies, there are at least five problems that challenge the best judgment of school administrators planning to adapt the new educational media to their instructional programs. They are problems of organization, staff, space, finance, and programming; around them the issues of classroom use of the new media seem to revolve.

I do not wish my observations about these problems to be interpreted as any kind of endorsement of classroom use of the new media, or as a prescription for school administrators to follow as they determine their responsibilities: I offer them only in the hope that they will stimulate thought and discussion.

<sup>4</sup> Simon Ramo, "A New Technique of Education," *Engineering and Science*, Vol. 21 (October 1957).

<sup>5</sup> John Ginther, "Man, Values, and the Machine," *The Elementary School Journal*, January 1960.

<sup>6</sup> Archibald B. Shaw, "TV in Teaching: Tyrant or Tool," *Overview*, February 1960.

## Organization for learning

It is possible that within a few years the most efficient grouping will consist of classes ranging from several hundred to one student; that although such a system will also be convenient because of the flexibility of new teaching tools, the individual abilities of the learner, not convenience, will be the primary reason for class organization.—Mass Communication and Education, Educational Policies Commission.

The current appraisal of how well the school is organized for its task—helping the learner learn—is not entirely a consequence of the new media's arriving on the instructional scene. Some of the impetus certainly comes from the nationwide eagerness to make the best possible use of the time and energy of both teacher and student.

The NASSP's Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School has suggested ideas about organization that are receiving much attention. The Commission maintains that use of many instructional media demands flexible instructional patterns and procedures. The schoolday, they say, should be divided into 15-, 20-, 25-, or 30-minute modules; classes generally should have longer sessions and meet fewer times a week; schedules should vary with individual students; size of the instructional group should vary with what is being learned and why; and students should have more opportunity to work independently in laboratories, libraries, and shops—part of the time with teaching machines.<sup>7</sup>

Some persons think that use of the teaching machine will lead to the ungraded classroom as the basic organization and that students will be grouped by their levels of knowledge. Professor Skinner of Harvard believes that, in time, students will be spending part of their schoolday with teaching machines and that since conventional time periods will no longer be practicable, administrators will have to work out flexible "traffic" schedules.

Regardless of his level of ability, any pupil who has been "taught" a lesson by a teaching machine, says Skinner, will "master" the material since the machine, serving as a "private tutor" and having "infinite patience" will not permit the pupil to make errors as it guides him through a carefully designed sequence of steps. According to the Harvard professor, "hard" material may be just another name for poorly programmed material.

Professor Skinner further asserts<sup>8</sup> that use of teaching machines will eliminate the need for pupil progress reports; that the only grades given will be for mastery of the subject material in a course; that slow pupils will no longer be retarded by school year; that pupils who learn

<sup>7</sup> J. Lloyd Trump, *New Directions to Quality Education*, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, National Education Association, 1960.

<sup>8</sup> B. F. Skinner, "Teaching Machines," *Science*, Vol. 128, No. 3330 (October 1958).

quickly can move ahead during a school year to a higher level in that subject; and that periodic testing and grading, even homework lessons, will end.

Overseeing the machines in the classroom and controlling the flow of teaching programs for the machines may require a subprofessional teacher-assistant. With such help, the teacher would have more time for creative tasks—inspiring and challenging students, leading discussions, advising on new programs, and the like.

The Rutgers plan for English classes illustrates the way in which instructional organization is affected when new types of instructional materials are used. The project uses Skinnerian “programed exercises with immediate feedback” without the “hardware,” i.e., no machinery or special equipment is needed. This self-correcting material is designed to help relieve the increasing strain on English teachers who, it is estimated, will be teaching 200 students a day by 1965.

Under the plan, a class of some 40 students is divided into two sections. Each section meets with the teacher only twice a week, once to discuss books read in common, once to discuss student papers. On two other days members of each section work independently in a large “free-reading room,” and on the fifth day both sections report for a test on the self-correcting homework assigned for that week. After the test the class, with the assistance of a college-educated layman, discusses the difficult material. The regular English teacher is free one full day a week to meet with students who need special help.<sup>9</sup>

### Role of the teacher

... we must now train teachers who are specialists not only in the processes and content of education, but in the use of television and other audiovisual aids, teaching machines, tests, and recordings to individualize instruction.—William M. Alexander

Plans for instructional reorganization to accommodate the new media can hardly be made without a reexamination of the role of the teacher. The explosion in knowledge influencing the curriculum and the demand of the times for highly educated citizens would, in themselves, require greater competence in the teacher. In addition, the new media, and the increasing use of team teaching—two or more teachers working together with different-sized groups of pupils during an adjustable time period covering two or more regular class periods—require highly specialized teachers. The introduction of instructional TV in the classroom has already changed the tasks of the classroom teacher: a “master” teacher is responsible for the teaching on camera, and the regular classroom teacher adjusts the program to the goals cooperatively worked out by the teaching staff.

<sup>9</sup> Paul B. Diederich, “The Rutgers Plan for Cutting Class Size in Two,” *The English Journal*, Vol. 49, No. 4 (April 1960).

The school administrator bears major responsibility for encouraging the classroom teacher to take part in in-service education programs so that he may keep up with new developments in techniques and understand the problem of introducing new media in classroom instruction. It is, after all, highly unlikely that the full potential of the new instructional media will be realized unless classroom teachers use them in creative, imaginative ways.

In many ways the new media will demand more of the teacher than he has yet been asked to give. Finding out what actually is a pupil’s response to a stimulus has never been an easy part of the teacher’s task; and it will be even more difficult if the child spends any of his time learning from a technological device. The teacher will have to work more closely than ever with the individual pupil to discover what effects the new methods are having on his attitudes and emotions.

Moreover, in the context of automated teaching, it will be all the more vital for the teacher to discharge his distinctly human responsibilities. Indeed, if the values of a democratic society are to be preserved the teacher will have to concentrate even more earnestly on his responsibilities for developing the full potential of every child by stimulating his imagination, broadening his vision, stretching his powers, building his confidence, and helping him appreciate the ideals of democracy.

### Instructional spaces

Among educators there is a growing awareness of the need for greater variation in the sizes of instructional spaces.—AASA School-Building Commission.

Instructional programs using new tools probably cannot be effectively administered in the conventional spaces, i.e., in a series of rooms containing rows of desks and an auditorium that doubles as a projection room. The AASA School-Building Commission maintains that in the secondary schools grouping pupils in a “classroom cubicle” is gradually giving way to more flexible grouping, in rooms of various sizes holding 15, 20, 30, 50, and up to 100 and 150 persons.

The new instructional media may spur efforts to design instructional spaces of various sizes. The possibilities for making auditoriums divisible and small-group spaces convertible into larger spaces for use of new media are being explored by some school systems through financial support provided by the Educational Facilities Laboratory.<sup>10</sup> The EFL was established by the Ford Foundation in 1958 to aid colleges and school systems in planning their educational facilities.

Technological aids designed for individual instruction

<sup>10</sup> John R. Boice and others (eds.), *Coordinated School and Community Planning*, The School Planning Laboratory, Stanford, California, December 1959.



suggest some kind of separate spaces for the individual students using the aids. Two architects, for example, designed a "Q" (for "Quest") space—an individual "office" for each pupil, which is enclosed on three sides and contains a TV screen built into a bookshelf and, presumably, a teaching machine.<sup>11</sup>

Already several schools throughout the Nation are providing the various kinds of spaces the new media call for. The American Association of School Administrators, in *Planning America's School Buildings*, refers to several new school buildings that were constructed with the new media in mind. Another source—an article written by a superintendent of schools and an architect—tells of a new high school in Massachusetts which contains spaces designed for both independent study and TV teaching.<sup>12</sup>

School administrators have always had to grapple with problems of adapting space to instructional needs—for example, of providing facilities for darkening the classroom without interfering with good ventilation. Total flexibility of instructional spaces probably cannot be built-in: expense may be too high, and acoustical difficulties may be too great. Above all, tomorrow's needs are impossible to foresee. On the other hand, the administrator cannot close his eyes to the rapid changes in instructional technology that may require modifications in instructional spaces.

The new media will, of course, present different problems to different individual administrators. Since communities vary in what they desire for their children, efforts to establish standards for classroom design would be both impractical and unwise. The administrator who plans school buildings for both today and tomorrow needs some guidelines to follow. A research project at Portland State College, under a contract with the Office of Education, on the planning and equipping of school buildings for the effective use of new instructional media will be completed early in 1961 and should be a useful source of information on this subject.

## Financing

Today the overwhelming proportion of the construction dollar goes into the shell of the building, while relatively little goes into that which might increase teaching efficiency.—Harold F. Clark

It has been estimated that although a simple type of teaching machine can be built for less than \$50, the production of the manuscript for a single program on that machine, say in elementary arithmetic for one semester,

<sup>11</sup> Charles W. Brubaker and Lawrence B. Perkins, "Sketch Book—Space for Individual Learning," *School Executive*, New York City, February 1959.

<sup>12</sup> Edward Allen and John C. Harkness, "Planned Variability," *The Nation's Schools*, April 1960.

can cost as much as \$50,000.<sup>13</sup> The installation of a fully equipped language laboratory can cost thousands of dollars, as can the purchase of a film series. Costs of inschool TV systems range from several thousands dollars to more than a quarter of a million. Clearly, the technological aids to teaching, though they may improve the instructional process, will increase the operating costs of the school.

The school administrator continually faces the problem of allocating limited financial resources to support a variety of approaches for improving instruction. Although he may use foundation support to stimulate use of the new instructional media, the administrator is left with the problem of continuing it with local funds after financial aid terminates.

But is cost to be the deciding question? Many who advocate use of instructional technology in classroom teaching maintain that to use teachers for the routine aspects of teaching, even though they can carry out these tasks for less than the machines will cost, is to waste precious human abilities and qualities. By letting the machines take over repetitive and routine teaching tasks, human instructors can be freed to use their talent and training for the more creative part of teaching.

To anyone holding this point of view, of course, the focus of attention in purchasing the new media is not on how much they will cost but on whether they will upgrade the teaching-learning process through individualizing instruction.

## Programing

To many persons, an important issue in considering the place of such new media as television and teaching machines in the classroom is control.—Chester D. Babcock.

In the great debate about the merits of the new media in classroom instruction, it is poor programing rather than the medium that is often criticized. The device is one thing, whether motion picture projector, TV set, or teaching machine "hardware"; the teaching material or curriculum content for the device is quite another.

Teachers have had a relatively wide latitude of choice in selecting textbooks in a given subject field. Even if a text is not entirely satisfactory, creative teachers can supplement it with reference and resource books. In selecting audiovisual materials, however, teachers have been more restricted. High production costs and a limited market have made it difficult for manufacturers to produce films, filmstrips, recordings, and the like at a low unit cost. The enormous initial costs and the centralization required for planning and designing material

<sup>13</sup> Eugene Galanter, "The Mechanization of Teaching," *Bulletin of The National Association of Secondary School Principals*, April 1960, p. 307.



for the "newer" media raise the question of curriculum control.

The preparation of motion picture, TV, audio tape, or teaching machine programs requires the services of highly specialized persons and the outlay of large sums of money. Such materials are not easily revised except at great expense, and this barrier to flexibility has alarmed some persons who see a possibility of "freezing" the curriculum once an investment in these materials has been made by the local district. Others point to the danger that a national curriculum might materialize: agencies not answerable to the public for their actions could produce standardized instructional materials in "package" form that cannot easily be modified to meet the needs of school districts.

Concern about the possible weakening of local control of the curriculum in connection with the proposed mid-west airborne television project which would be received by school systems in a six-state region has led one educator to inquire: "Who will control the content to be taught, the teachers to be employed, the hours when the program will be conducted?"<sup>14</sup> He suggests that a meeting be held in the central part of the Nation so that those who are interested may send representatives to lay down guidelines and policies for the operation of public educational programs which cross State lines.

Although programing for teaching machines is in a state of infancy, the questions which have been raised concerning the problem of curriculum control will have to be faced. Once an expensive program for a teaching machine has been produced, the subject matter that has been programed may affect classroom learning for many years. It will not be easy for subject-matter specialists to agree on the limited, specified body of information in their field that should be programed for teaching machines.

The programs for teaching machines can only be created by a program writer who works closely with the student. A program cannot be written out a priori since the editor of the program is the student himself. Each segment of a machine program must be tried out and revised in the light of errors the student makes. Perhaps program writers will have to be recruited from among the teaching corps.

THE school administrator may expect to be severely challenged in resolving the issues I have discussed here and the many others that will arise as he evaluates the contribution the new media can make to the instructional program.

Innovations in instructional practices will require a great deal of cooperative consultation with staff members and teachers at every stage of program development.

<sup>14</sup> Letter to the author by W. A. Shannon, Executive Director, National School Boards Association, March 3, 1960.

This procedure will be necessary since use of new media must be integrated with the ongoing school program in instruction, curriculum development, inservice education, supervision, and the instructional materials program and services.

Above all, administrators need to insure that the purposes and goals of education in a democratic society are protected and preserved. Maximum development of each pupil must be the basic goal of any instructional program. The purposes of education, as revealed in the instructional program of local school districts, should determine *which* instructional tools will be used and *how* they will be used. New educational media must be under the control of the teacher who should use them for the unique contribution they can make to the teaching-learning process. If inschool television is used only as a "talking textbook," for example, its unique contribution to learning has not been exploited. Basic principles underlying all good teaching and learning apply to "newer" as well as to "older" instructional materials.

Since the product of the school—the individual learner—is the one to be served, teachers require a theory of learning to support the use of the new instructional media. The lack of a sound and tested theory will continue to handicap educators in their efforts to develop the use of these media.

The ASCD Commission on Instructional Materials, under a contract with the Office of Education, is conducting a study to formulate a theory for the development and utilization of educational media and materials. Such a statement may offer administrators, curriculum workers, teachers, and others some guidelines on the use of new media in the instructional process.

The school administrator may consider initiating the following types of activities in order to determine the role of new educational media in his school program:

1. Establish a study group of staff members and teachers to keep abreast of developments in new media. The group should identify local needs and make recommendations to the school administrator.
2. Encourage the teaching staff to undertake local research studies in utilization of one or more of the new media in classroom instruction.
3. Secure the services of educational specialists qualified to guide staff and faculty studies of local use of new educational media.
4. Report periodically to school board members, school staff, and community groups about changes being made or contemplated in instructional practices.
5. Initiate advanced planning with staff members and teachers to determine ways and means of introducing into the school program the new media which the planning group have recommended. Such action should be motivated by a desire to increase the students' opportunity to learn from the new media and minimize teacher and staff confusion or misunderstanding which may arise from their use. [For list of references, see page 30.]

## Teachers Report Their Reactions on MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTITUTES

By LAWRENCE S. POSTON, Jr., *Specialist, Language Institutes*

READERS of *School Life* already know something about the language institute program conducted under Title VI of the National Defense Education Act. Earlier issues have reported some basic facts—

▶ that 12 institutes, lasting from 6 to 8 weeks, were conducted last summer in widely scattered States ranging from Maine to California, from Georgia to Washington.

▶ that these institutes were designed to improve the quality of language instruction in elementary and secondary schools.

▶ that they trained from as few as 30 to as many as 100 teachers of German, French, Russian, and Spanish.

▶ that 4 academic-year institutes are currently offering training in French, Russian, and Spanish to groups of about 20 teachers each.

We have estimated that the 930 trainees in last summer's institutes are already doing a better job of teaching the approximately 100,000 children studying foreign languages in this country. But do we know what happened in the institutes last summer and what is currently happening in the classrooms of these participants?

We have a pretty good idea, but let the participants speak for themselves.

\* \* \* \* \*

"Gentlemen:

I was a participant in this year's Modern Language Institute, Spanish section, at — . . . and would like to express my appreciation to your office for making the Institute possible.

The Institute was well organized. It offered me the opportunity to study under an excellent faculty. The training I received was superior and very intensive. Our director . . . was most understanding and sympathetic. . . . I profited immensely in

every way from participating. . . . This fall I am using the new methods and ideas . . . in my Spanish classes. . . ."

\* \* \* \* \*

"Dear Sirs:

I would like to express my appreciation for the opportunity to participate in a language institute this summer at — . . . The program in which I participated was particularly helpful in introducing me to the best current practices in the teaching of modern languages. . . . The courses offered me . . . were admirably suited to assist me in overcoming my difficulties, and . . . carried out to the full intention of the . . . Act."

These two letters were addressed to the Office of Education, and are quoted exactly except for the excisions. Usually, however, participants wrote to the institute director. The following are brief excerpts from letters to directors.

"As soon as I returned this summer, I had an hour conference with my supervising principal and our junior high school principal. The latter said he would like to have his school pioneer in this language program."

\* \* \* \* \*

"One week of teaching is now completed, and I can't resist writing to tell you that there has been scarcely one minute that I couldn't thank someone on your institute staff for the inspiration and help given this summer."

\* \* \* \* \*

"One of the happiest results of the summer's hard work was to watch the slow . . . change in the attitude of many 'die hards' . . . who had always used a grammar book and were completely set in their ways. . . . The new method acquired many converts and I am just now beginning to re-

ceive letters from some of them, enthusiastically praising the results of their first few weeks of experimentation with their own pupils."

\* \* \* \* \*

"Last summer I attended the institute at —; it was a wonderful experience, and I learned so much that is proving to be extremely helpful in my work. . . . I have been using the 'New Key' methods and materials, especially the Glastonbury Materials.<sup>1</sup> Results have been most gratifying."

\* \* \* \* \*

These comments are representative of the letters; no remark has been taken out of context, and all letters were signed. But not all is moonlight and roses. There have been a few letters of adverse criticism. The criticisms, however, have been thoughtful, well reasoned, and objective, and point clearly to possible improvements in the program. Let us consider a few points raised in one letter.

"In view of the generous allowance which I received for myself and my three dependents, I feel like a heel in telling you that I was bitterly disappointed in the institute. . . . I am writing to make some suggestions so that teachers who go to such institutes in the future will get more good from them than I did.

"We had a very good class in German literature. The professor was excellent. His material was interesting. However, about two-thirds of the students were unable to read the works in German and had to resort to translations. Most of the students had difficulty in following the lectures.

<sup>1</sup> This is a reference to material published as a research project out of this office, under the capable direction of Mary Thompson, curriculum supervisor of the public schools of Glastonbury, Conn.

*Two classes in one at an NDEA language institute. Teachers attending the institute watch a demonstration in high school German, University of Colorado, summer 1959.*

This was not the professor's fault. . . . I feel that direct instruction in speaking and writing German would have been more useful to me. . . .

"We also had two courses in 'Linguistics,' one called General, the other Applied. Some of the participants thought these were valuable, but I cannot see how I will apply them directly. . . . The instructors we had in the linguistics courses were well prepared and worked hard. I think the time would have been more profitably spent learning German. . . .

"I have written letters to the two Senators from ——— and to the Representative from my Congressional district thanking them for making these institutes available. . . . I hope that this will be construed as constructive criticism, not merely as a gripe. . . .

"Thank you for arranging the institutes and for reading this."

No one can fail to note the good temper and fairmindedness of the writer of this letter. This attitude is characteristic of the few letters of complaint we have received (actually, characteristic of all but two, and one of these was unsigned). Such honest criticism, when substantiated by our own observations and by reports of evaluators, can be of great help in our future programing.

The expanded program for this year has been announced: 5 academic-year institutes for secondary teachers of French, German, and Russian and for elementary and secondary teachers of Spanish; and 37 summer institutes in the languages and at the levels offered last summer, with the addition of secondary Italian. In all, about 2,200 participants can be accommodated, including 190 repeaters at advanced institutes in French, German, and Spanish. For 1961 even more institutes have been planned.

The small staff in Washington will



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do its best to see that institute programs are properly planned and carried out. But their ultimate success will depend primarily on the enthusiasm, the skill, and the knowl-

edge of the directors and their staffs, and on the degree to which the participants can slough off age-old prejudices and examine new teaching methods and materials.

## NDEA in Denver

*Continued from p. 7*

The need for a stronger curriculum in mathematics and for additional equipment is also being met.

With television sets, visual aids, laboratory equipment, and reference materials in elementary schools, teachers of science, mathematics, and foreign languages can do a more effective job of teaching and of evaluating pupils' skills. Pupils can use the new materials and equipment in their practice as well as in the classrooms.

The entire staff participated in the planning. All of them were regularly informed about progress and projects in a number of ways: Through instructional committees made up of representatives in each of the five areas of the city, through

printed instructions on inventories and acquisition of equipment, and through televised inservice programs.

A consultant showed teachers who voluntarily attended a 3-hour workshop appropriate items of equipment for each of the units of the science curriculum and gave them an opportunity to handle and test devices that were new to them. Similar workshops will be set up in the five areas of the city to assist teachers.

Title III of NDEA has already been of great assistance to the Denver school system in revising its curriculum. And administrators and teachers are looking forward to better courses and other benefits as the programs are more fully developed.

—Based on a report submitted by ROBERT A. MORTON and ARTHUR R. OLSON, Denver Public Schools.

By JENNIE CLYDE HOLLIS, *Program Specialist*



## CIVIL DEFENSE ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAM

**B**ETWEEN the middle of September 1959 and the first of April 1960, over 21,000 adults in Florida, Kentucky, Minnesota, and Texas learned through the Civil Defense Education Program what Civil Defense is and the practical measures they can take to survive in time of disaster.

There is sound reason in the United States today for this kind of adult education in the general area of civil responsibility. Overall planning for protection and survival measures in time of disaster, which is what Civil Defense is, has become much more a necessary part of our daily lives than we realize. As Commissioner Derthick has said:

The complexities of modern life make it increasingly necessary that we as a people develop organized plans for defending ourselves against natural and manmade disasters that threaten our community life. War, fire and flood, disease and storm have always been with us. But the conflict of national ideologies, scientific and technical advances, and our growing urbanization intensify the hazards. The greatest threat, of course, is modern warfare. If war comes, it will be waged with increasingly devastating weapons, against both military and civilian populations.

More than ever before it is imperative that each individual adult citizen of the United States be taught the effects of attack by modern weapons of war and the results of other disasters; the techniques of individual, family, and community survival; and the importance of acting and planning *now*.

The National Plan for Civil Defense and Defense Mobilization, promulgated by the Executive Office of

the President, delineates the responsibility of all segments of our society in mobilizing to meet disaster. According to the Plan, the individual is responsible for being "capable of caring for himself in an emergency and contributing to the organized community survival effort."

### Beginnings

It was in recognition of this assignment of responsibility and the fact that the general public must first learn about Civil Defense to accept it and carry out their responsibility that the Civil Defense Adult Education Program (CDAEP) was established.

Early in 1958 the Director, Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization (OCDM), proposed to the Commissioner of Education that the Office of Education accept responsibility for teaching individual adult citizens the principles of personal and family survival through the already existing adult education programs of the Nation. An agreement covering the proposal was signed in December 1958, and in March the Director of Civil Defense Education was appointed.

By the end of the fiscal year, the director had recruited a staff and entered into contractual arrangements with the chief State school officers of Florida, Kentucky, Minnesota, and Texas to incorporate Civil Defense Education into the adult education programs in their States in school year 1959-60. These States were chosen on the basis of their varied populations and the spread of OCDM Regional representation.

### Organization

The Office of Education, with the support of OCDM, is responsible for administering the program through State and local school systems. The Office of Education maintains liaison with OCDM, other Federal agencies concerned, and national education associations. It administers the program through contracting with State school officers, provides financial assistance and consultive services, and is responsible for the maintenance of sound educational practices.

OCDM has provided the initial instructional materials and gives continuing guidance on technical matters. Each State school officer carries out the program through the normal educational channels in his State with the assistance of a coordinator of CDAE and a training team, or teams, depending on the size and population of the State. These educators are recruited by the chief State school officer and become permanent members of his staff.

Initially the coordinators and team members receive technical training at OCDM Headquarters, Battle Creek, Mich. They then work through local school officials to establish courses and recruit well-qualified educators to teach the local courses. The teachers meet with training teams in 15-hour workshops or institutes to learn the basic concepts of Civil Defense and to develop sound methods for recruiting, publicizing, and teaching. The State departments of education certify those who complete this training as Civil Defense Adult Educators, qualified to teach CDAE courses conducted in their communities under the auspices of their local school administrators. To local citizens who attend all sessions of a 12-hour course, the departments issue CDAE certificates, testifying that they understand Civil Defense concepts.

State and local school administrators work closely with their Civil Defense directors, who provide technical assistance, information, and materials particularly in those parts of the course dealing with the State and lo-



cal organization and plans for survival. They also help publicize the program.

### The Course

The essence of the Civil Defense Adult Education Program is, of course, what goes on between the teachers and the learners in each local CDAE class, and what the class members take away with them in useful motivation and knowledge. Accordingly, a consistent effort is made to see that course content and teaching methods are geared to the audience and the objectives of the course.

The audience is the general public, with the variety in social and economic status, in maturity, and in intellectual level one would expect. But those who take the course do have characteristics in common. They are men and women who have a sense of personal and civil responsibility, who know little about Civil Defense, but are interested in knowing more. They are potential community leaders.

It is the objective of the course:

- ◆ To make clear the reason for a Civil Defense Program by imparting the necessary background information about its origin and organization.

- ◆ To alert class members to the dangers to the civilian population of modern methods of war.

- ◆ To show the results of disasters, other than those caused by war, particularly those that are more likely to occur in the State and local area where the course is being taught.

- ◆ To teach the action the individual is responsible for taking, now and when disaster strikes, for individual, family, and community survival.

In addition to meeting these limited and definable objectives, it is hoped that the basic CDAE course will lead those who complete the course to become candidates for further training for specific Civil Defense mobilization responsibilities in the community; to become a strong force for recruiting others in the community; and to serve as an informed leadership group by supporting enlightened civil defense policies and practices.

### Progress

The program constitutes a new approach to teaching civil defense concepts. Results so far in the four pioneering States have proved that basic civil defense concepts can be imparted successfully to the general public through the ongoing adult education programs of the Nation.

The difficult job of getting the word out has been met through a mobilization of community forces. State and local advisory committees not only have contributed valuable guidance, but have also served as priceless communications media. Newspapers, television, radio, periodicals, and other means of mass communication—local, State, regional, and national—have served well. PTA's, civic clubs, and church groups have helped by featuring the CDAEP on their programs, by circularizing their membership, and by putting on radio programs. State and local Civil Defense directors have publicized the courses in their newsletters and other communications

media. Pamphlets and flyers have been prepared and widely scattered; school officials and teachers have sent them to parents by day-school pupils; civic minded merchants have distributed them in bags of groceries; and local churches have inserted them in their church bulletins. State and local school officials and teachers have appeared on programs and panels to tell the CDAE story.

Classes have been successfully taught where there are well-developed adult education programs, and where there are not; in cities, towns, and rural areas; to relatively select classes of adults and to the less sophisticated; in well-equipped science laboratories and in corners of school basements; by skilled teachers and by teachers who have had to learn techniques and some of the subject matter.

There have been immediate results in increased and increasing enrollments, and in most instances good completion rates. The first half of the school year was devoted primarily to training teachers. Over 2,200 have been trained to date in the 4 States. The number of adults in classes has steadily increased. In December and in January approximately 1,400 adults had been trained in the principles of Civil Defense; and by the first of April over 21,000 adult citizens had been trained.

The States already have plans solidified that will increase this rate considerably. Estimates indicate that up to 70,000 will have "got the word" by the end of this fiscal year.

Far-reaching results are beginning to show. Where courses have been taught, recruiting is becoming less of a problem and classes are multiplying. Many counties that had no active Civil Defense organizations of any kind before CDAE classes were taught, now have directors and local plans. Students are advised to follow up the course by taking the Red Cross First Aid Course or having somebody in their families take it. In some communities, the Red Cross is being swamped with so many additional requests for courses that it is having a teacher shortage. In one

#### Participating States, 1959-60

##### FLORIDA

Thomas D. Bailey  
Supt. of Public Instruction  
Sam E. Hand, Asst. Director  
Adult and Veteran Education  
George S. Davis, Jr.  
Coordinator, CDAE

##### KENTUCKY

Wendell P. Butler  
Supt. of Public Instruction  
Norbert C. Rehtin  
Coordinator, CDAE

##### MINNESOTA

Dean M. Schweickhard  
Commissioner of Education  
Elmer A. Mueller, Director  
Adult Education  
M. Eldon Schultz  
Coordinator, CDAE

##### TEXAS

J. W. Edgar  
Commissioner of Education  
M. A. Browning, Asst. Commissioner  
for Vocational Education  
George H. Blassingame  
Coordinator, CDAE

town in Texas the mayor declared Civil Defense Education Week, and the Governor of the State followed up his action by declaring the first week in May Civil Defense Education Week for the whole State.

Contracts have been renewed in the presently contracting States, and retraining, evaluation, and curriculum revision are going on apace. Two additional representative States will soon enter the program, and the Of-

fice is planning to carry the program into 4 or 5 other States in 1961.

For, as Leo A. Hoegh, Director, Office of Civil and Defense Mobilization has said:

It is through education that civil defense can become even more potent. People must understand the threat that exists, the weapons that may be used and their effects upon our people and our resources, in order to act intelligently and to take the simple measures which can lead to survival.

Now that a beginning has been made in integrating Civil Defense education into the curriculum of adult education, it is hoped that eventually Civil Defense concepts will become a part of education on all levels for all Americans. Growth in this direction is taking place. Contracts are presently being negotiated with key universities to prepare materials suitable for use in elementary and secondary social studies and science courses.

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By EDNA P. AMIDON, *Director,  
Home Economics Education Branch*

## EDUCATION *for* HOME *and* FAMILY LIFE

IT has become commonplace to say that changes occurring in society are reflected in the home, increasing the pressures there and bringing new problems. But the changes now come so fast that the pressures are no longer commonplace: they are, in fact, extraordinary. More married homemakers are working outside the home and more women are carrying community responsibilities. The need for new patterns in home life is widely accepted. Early marriages are common, and many high school and college students are already married and having children. There are more aged today than formerly. There are more goods and services available and greater pressures on people to buy. The population is increasing rapidly, and every year a larger proportion of families move their residence.

Despite the changes, however, society still expects the home to stay stable and be consoling, to reinforce the positive forces in the world and to mitigate the negative. In other words, society expects the home to understand the changes that are going on and to adjust to them wisely and well. But the home can be no wiser and no better than the family that lives there, and the family can be no wiser and no better than its individual members. This need for wisdom in the individual member of the family points unhesitatingly in

one direction—toward careful education for successful family life. The subject cannot be carelessly or casually treated, by either the teacher or the taught. It must be carefully organized, skillfully presented, and assiduously studied.

### The school's job

Not all education, of course, is the school's job. In all functionally organized instruction in school programs—for example, in citizenship and homemaking—there are some tasks that logically fall to the school and some that should be done by other agencies in the community. How to differentiate between these is an assignment that all concerned with the school today must undertake. Guidance for this assignment comes now from Ralph Tyler, who has recently stated a basis the school can use for differentiating its own responsibilities from those of other agencies.<sup>1</sup> Of the half dozen educational tasks he singles out as appropriate for the schools, there are two particularly applicable to home economics in well-organized, well-taught courses.

First, the school is obliged, Dr.

<sup>1</sup> "Educational Objectives of American Democracy," *The Nation's Children*, Eli Ginsberg, ed., vol. 2, White House Conference on Children and Youth, 1960, pp. 74-80.

Tyler says, to bring to the learner's attention those "principles, concepts, and meanings" that explain the phenomena in the learner's environment. He illustrates the point with a reference to plant life: the scientific laws behind the growth and development of plants are not on the surface obvious to the observer; they must be pointed out to him, the cause-and-effect relationships must be explained. This task, Dr. Tyler says, the school can perform more effectively than either the home or the job.

Secondly, he considers the school best equipped to help the learner recall, organize, and interpret his own experiences:

... Questions of justice, fairness, goodness arise again and again on the playground, in the marketplace, and elsewhere. It is not likely, however, that sheer contact with these ideas will be enough to help the individual youth to develop values that are clearly understood and effectively utilized. The school can provide opportunity from time to time to recall these experiences, to examine them, and seek to interpret them, thus clarifying the meaning of values as well as helping youth to appreciate them more adequately.

For ethical values, Dr. Tyler points out, this task will be shared by home, church, and youth organizations, but for esthetic values "only the school is likely to provide the opportunity systematically."

### Contribution of home economics

To any school program of organized education for successful family life, home economics has a major contribution to make: as a field of knowledge, its primary concern is to strengthen the family; and all its educational programs concentrate on developing in students the abilities they need for living constructively in their homes and with their families. Moreover, home economics courses provide a place where the knowledge and appreciation gained in other courses can be applied to home and family living.

What are the abilities, precisely, which we seek to inculcate on students through our home economics programs in schools? The ability to

make wise use of human and material resources, for one thing. The ability to apply to everyday life in the home the ideas and principles drawn from many disciplines—the same ideas and principles that Dr. Tyler says it is the school's responsibility to point out. The student himself is too absorbed in living to be aware of these principles or even to entertain these ideas unless he has the help and stimulation of a systematic approach to the subject.

Home economics programs also aim at helping the student develop ability to set the goals for himself and examine his values as they influence the use he will make of his resources. As Dorothy Lee, the noted anthropologist, implies, awareness of these values is the very foundation of a positive attitude toward change:

How can we help the individual have a meaningful life in a world of change? For me, one important way of doing this is to help our young people become aware of the value content of their everyday life, to recognize the values channeled through the simple operations they perform, and to be aware of the values at the base of their choices and decisions. If they are aware of these, then, as operations become eliminated and new operations take their place, as new materials become introduced—as change takes place—the individual can see to it that the values which had been expressed through the old operations and uses of materials can find a new channel for expression.<sup>2</sup>

The subjects through which the well-organized home economics program works to develop these attitudes are of course essential to all good family life: How to foster healthy growth and development in children; how to provide a home environment that satisfies each member of the family despite diverse interests and abilities; how to build diets that not only meet the nutritional needs of all the family but give pleasure to the palate and the eye; how to use money to best advantage in buying food, clothing, house furnishings, equipment, and services; and how to establish satis-

fying relations within the family and between the family and community. Besides, such subjects motivate certain students to stay in school.

Different terms are used throughout the Nation to describe such programs. And the same terms do not mean the same thing in every community. Homemaking education is accepted in many States and is derived from the idea that vocational education in home economics is education for the vocation of homemaking. "Education for family life" is a term used in some places to describe a schoolwide program to which various units or teachers in the school contribute: Home economics, sociology, guidance, health, and so forth. In other places the term "family life education" may mean one course dealing with the psychology of the family, or with family relationships and child development, or with social health aspects of the curriculum.

Whatever name they bear, however, systematic programs of education for family life are deeply needed. The need is felt not only by thoughtful observers of our world and time, but by those who should be receiving this education—the young people themselves. The point of view of both has been well expressed in one paragraph by the American Association of School Administrators:

Follow-up studies reveal that many students wish they had had more training in skillful family living. Young people need more understanding of the changing roles of men and women in our society. When given opportunity, youth show considerable eagerness to discuss family life; also, they point out that the present curriculum includes little on this subject. To be sure, disjointed aspects of the present curriculum are related to family living, but what is needed is integrated experience . . . Despite what seems to be a necessary trend for women to enter the labor market, homemaking continues as a major occupation. If the family is to remain the basic unit of life in our culture—certainly a desirable prospect—much can be done to help youth resist disintegrative forces now in operation.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>2</sup> *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators*, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1958, p. 56.

## Organizational problems

But an educational program that will be successful in preparing homemakers for their vocation does not arrive full-blown in the curriculum. It requires careful planning by every one concerned—by the school administrator, the curriculum coordinators, and the teaching staff. More than for most subjects, such a program requires a joint effort from the entire staff, for its goals call for cooperation from all the teachers in the school, no matter what their subjects. What is more, since it is impossible to conceive of education for family life without real homes and real situations the planning perforce will include parents.

As leaders in home economics education consider the changes needed in school and college courses in the light of today's needs and the crowded school curriculum, they are raising many questions. What educational goals are important, they ask, for different groups and for individual students? What methods of teaching are effective in helping students achieve different kinds of goals, goals calling for changed attitudes, new skills—manual and managerial—creative and critical thinking, problem-solving abilities? How can courses be planned so as to provide a good sequence of learning from one educational level to another? During what years is course work most important? How should it be scheduled?

Before these questions can be answered, much more systematic and fundamental research must be conducted and current practices must be examined in the light of new findings from educational and psychological research. Experience points to some of the answers. Certain organizational practices have proved successful or are being tried out at certain levels.

*For 7th and 8th grade*—Experience indicates that a 1-semester course in home economics offered daily is more effective than a 2-semester course offered one or two times a week. Some

<sup>3</sup> *Journal of Home Economics*, February 1960.



schools have successfully solved the scheduling problem by "blocking" home economics with art, industrial arts, or some other special subject, dividing the class in two, and then giving home economics for 1 semester to each group. Some teachers believe that even a 9- to 12-week unit, if it provides concentrated time, is better than a course offered once or twice a week over a whole year. The "blocking" practice has another advantage: it can be used to provide some units of instruction in home economics for boys as well as girls.

*Senior high school.*—As home economics is organized to meet the needs of senior high school students, different patterns are being tried out with the needs of different groups of students in mind. High school students to be served are (1) those who marry during high school or plan to marry as soon as they graduate, (2) the college-bound, and (3) those who are preparing for wage-earning occupations without further education. Then there are still the young people who do not finish high school. And the needs of adults will no doubt continue to grow in line with our growing body of knowledge, new problems and ways of living that emerge, and new demands for new abilities which will continue to arise out of changed conditions.

Programs of home economics in high school range in length from 1 to 4 years. They are provided in some places in each grade from the 9th to 12th, on a 5-day weekly basis.

The most common vocational program—2 or 3 consecutive years of home economics, beginning in the 9th grade—is being examined. Ninth- and tenth-grade work has served those who "drop out" of school before graduation and has helped to keep some young women in school for more years. Leaders are now looking at courses in the 11th or 12th year, which have often been included in a 3- or 4-year sequence, to learn how they can serve more students at this grade level.

In an effort to serve more students and at the same time to adjust to an

already crowded schedule, some schools now are experimenting with a 2-year home economics program, 1 year of which is offered in either the 9th or 10th grade, and the second year in either the 11th or 12th grade. With such a program schools also hope to serve better the students who marry during high school or shortly after graduation.

Some schools, especially large high schools, offer, in addition to a 1- or 2-year broad homemaking program, concentrated semesters of work for those who want to specialize in certain subjects, such as child development, family relationships, clothing, and home management. Such courses also provide for more flexibility in students' scheduling.

Increasingly, high schools, in order to reach more of the upper-grade-level students, are providing a broad 1-year program for senior boys and girls without any prerequisites. Some schools are also experimenting with a 1-semester course of this type. These courses vary widely. In some the emphasis is on preparation for marriage and family living, with special attention to sociological and psychological considerations. Some courses provide for a combination of such areas as home management, family relations, child development, family finance, foods and nutrition, consumer buying, and housing the family. These courses may be provided by a home economics teacher or by teachers from two or more disciplines working together.

In a number of schools, special courses in the upper high school classes are being developed for the college bound. Wherever these courses are being offered in such a way as to be meaningful to students, they are being widely elected (Ruth Wheeler gives a brief description of these in the *NEA Journal*, March 1960). They are important for two reasons: One, they give superior high school students some insight into the interrelatedness of many subjects so that they will be able to draw meaning from them for their own personal lives, now and later; second,

they show something of the fast-growing body of knowledge about home and family life and the wide range of professional opportunities now open to the expert in these fields.

Ways are being found of providing home economics for students in business education programs and in programs for other types of wage-earning occupations, such as those in trades and industry. These courses are designed to prepare the student to meet her personal needs as an employed woman and to fulfill her role as a wage-earning homemaker.

*Future Homemakers of America (FHA)*, an organization for students who have studied or are studying home economics in high schools in rural communities and small towns, provides opportunities for home-school-community cooperation. FHA leaders are now working with officials in a number of large cities to develop programs so that young people there also may profit from activities in this organization.

To supplement regular class work, some high schools are offering short intensive courses in the summer or after school hours.

The success of new kinds of programs can only be measured by finding out how many pupils have benefited from them and by developing and using new means of evaluating achievement of important goals. Help from parents and from staff members of other school departments is needed in evaluating new patterns of organization. Home-school cooperation, which is accepted as an essential part of vocational programs of homemaking, offers special opportunities for securing parents' reactions and help in evaluating different program plans.

*Adult education.*—Programs in home economics for adults are expanding along with those of other fields of study. Increasingly homemakers of all ages are asking for education in child development, family relationships, and home management, in planning and serving family meals, in family economics, and in meeting the needs of aging family members.

In the further expansion and strengthening of educational programs for home and family life, home economics leaders, along with other educators and community leaders, will seek new ways of selecting and educating teachers, of developing curriculums, of determining the media of instruction most appropriate for presenting different kinds of subjects, of creating the kind of physical environment and emotional climate that will attract and serve all who need such education and can profit by it.

### Inservice preparation

Supervisors and teachers are aware of their need for finding ways to strengthen home economics programs and to adapt them to the demands of today. Many States are working with teachers to get more depth and greater reality into their home economics instruction.

In Iowa, one teacher reported her new approach after a summer's workshop experience:

In our third-year homemaking class this year, we have made a special effort to project the students' thinking ahead to the day when they'll be making their own decisions and choices as college students, career girls, or being responsible for a family in the community. What does our community expect of its families? What are some of the constructive forces in our city that help to weave the families into the community? What are some of the agencies that stand ready to help families, and how do these agencies operate? These are a few of the questions our homemaking class and community citizens have been answering together this year. \* \* \* \*

She went on to tell how she brought parents into the homemaking program. Mothers joined students in a panel discussion on money management, and students and parents worked together to keep family accounts which the class later used for study. Parents were invited to attend class discussions led by resource persons from the community. In addition, the class made a deep study of the community structure. Speak-

<sup>4</sup>"Students Look Ahead to Place in Community," by Dorothy Peak, Creston High School, Creston, Iowa. *Journal of Home Economics*, April 1959.

ers from various businesses and offices came in to explain social and economic organization—the bank's services to the community, insurance of various kinds, the social security program, home ownership, and so forth.

An evaluation committee, made up of homemaking teachers and supervisors in New York State, has sought the opinions of teachers about what the characteristics of high-quality programs are. They have come up with five categories of characteristics, based on the teacher, the courses, the content, the methods and techniques, and the facilities. Samples of the characteristics for three of these follow:

**COURSES.** Are adapted to the needs and abilities of students; allow for some system of grouping which would result in maximum achievement by students on all ability levels; are scheduled on the basis of a planned sequence; enroll pupils in sufficient numbers to permit both group organization and individual attention.

**CONTENT.** Stimulates further investigation by students; considers scope and sequence to avoid repetition; includes family and community cooperation and/or participation; lends itself to both study and application; integrates homemaking with other areas in the school program.

**METHODS AND TECHNIQUES.** Create a climate for thinking and doing; extend learnings beyond the classroom; use school and community resources for enrichment and emphasis in teaching; utilize up-to-date and pertinent reference materials; lead to generalizations and applications; require a variety of evaluation devices.

Leaders in many States are helping teachers develop and use new audiovisual aids and other resource materials as they use problem-solving methods of teaching, which encourage pupils to arrive at principles and generalizations and to apply them in many situations.

In one county school system, several home economics teachers worked out plans to stimulate fast learners and students who showed a high interest and ability in particular parts of the year's program. Out of this work grew special projects by individual students.

### The teacher herself

In home economics, as in all other subjects, the teacher is the key to the successful instructional program. For that reason, all who are responsible for educating the teacher, for selecting her, and motivating her are deeply concerned about the factors in her professional competence.

They are looking, therefore, at the college preparation of the home economics teacher. They are considering her need for a liberal education—a need reflected today in the fact that many colleges require her to have at least 50 percent of her credits for graduation in general education. They are reexamining teacher-education courses, which in many institutions approximate 30 percent of the required credits, in the light of the teacher's job and in the light of a rapidly expanding technology and the changing social scene. In fact, the "rightness" of the teacher's entire education is being measured against the demands that will be put upon it as, in her classroom, she assays to help students of different ages and abilities realize their potentialities. More and more, as a result of this reevaluation, home economics college courses are encouraging more critical thinking, more self-direction, more creativity.

Most home economics programs in teacher education make the teacher well aware that she has broad responsibilities, that she is not just teaching a subject but is helping her students to become well-coordinated young people. So prepared, she will bear in mind that nothing seems more sure today than that change will continue at an accelerated pace and that, consequently, nothing can be more important for each subject in the school to

foster than the development of study skills. To contribute to this development she will not only help students draw generalizations from their reading and experience, but help them recognize what interests they are developing and how they can continue to develop them, what values they hold and how to examine their lives in relation to their values.

As the teacher works to understand her pupils and to provide a situation in which students of widely differing abilities and needs can learn effectively, she needs guidance—guidance in curriculum development and in the use she can make of the increasing flow of sound research findings. Teachers must be supported by administrative arrangements that foster

good teaching and good working relations among teachers, and by school-home-community relations that make possible an effective use of home and community resources. With these supports, the teacher will be greatly aided in her efforts to provide the kind of systematic education young people need if the home is to continue as the basic unit of our culture.

## OFFICE OF EDUCATION PUBLICATIONS IN 1959-60

(For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C.)

### Adult education

ADULT EDUCATION IN AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK, NOVEMBER 6-12, 1960, 15¢ single copy, \$10 per 100 copies. (OE-13006.)

ADULT EDUCATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS, 1940-56, DATA ON ENROLLMENT, INSTRUCTIONAL PERSONNEL, AND EXPENDITURES, 20¢. (OE-13000.)

### Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1954-56

CH. 1: STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF EDUCATION, 1955-56, 45¢. (OE-10003.)

CH. 2: STATISTICS OF STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 1955-56, ORGANIZATION, STAFF, PUPILS, AND FINANCES, 45¢.

CH. 3; SEC. I: STATISTICS OF LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 1955-56: CITIES, \$1.

CH. 3, SEC. II: STATISTICS OF LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 1955-56: SUBURBAN CITIES, \$1. (OE-20008.)

CH. 3, SEC. III: STATISTICS OF LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 1955-56: COUNTY UNITS, 35¢.

CH. 4, SEC. II: STATISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION, 1955-56: RECEIPTS, EXPENDITURES, AND PROPERTY, 65¢.

CH. 5: STATISTICS OF PUBLIC LIBRARIES, 1955-56, 45¢.

### Cooperative Research

COOPERATIVE RESEARCH PROJECTS, FISCAL 1958, 25¢. (Bul. 1959, No. 18.)

### Education Directory 1959-60

PART 1: FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND STATES, 30¢. (OE-20004.)

PART 2: COUNTIES AND CITIES, 45¢. (OE-20005.)

PART 3: HIGHER EDUCATION, 70¢. (OE-50000.)

PART 4: EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS, 50¢. (OE-10001.)

### Elementary and Secondary Education

ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH IN THE TEACHING OF MATHEMATICS, 1957 AND 1958, 25¢. (OE-29007.)

ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH IN THE TEACHING OF SCIENCE, JULY 1956-JULY 1957, 25¢. (OE-29000.)

FACILITIES AND EQUIPMENT FOR SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS, REQUIREMENTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION, \$1. (OE-21000.)

FALL 1959 ENROLLMENT, TEACHERS, AND SCHOOLHOUSING IN FULL-TIME PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY DAY SCHOOLS, 25¢. (OE-20007.)

GUIDANCE WORKERS CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS, 35¢. (OE-25005.)

KEY AUDIOVISUAL PERSONNEL IN PUBLIC SCHOOL AND LIBRARY SYSTEMS IN STATES AND LARGE CITIES AND IN LARGE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, 1959-60, 35¢. (OE-34003.)

MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN HIGH SCHOOL: PRE-READING INSTRUCTION, 25¢. (OE-27000.)

PHYSICAL EDUCATION IN URBAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS, 45¢. (Bul. 1959, No. 15.)

PREPARATION PROGRAMS AND COURSE OFFERINGS IN SCHOOL AND COLLEGE PERSONNEL WORK, 1959-60, 75¢. (OE-25000.)

QUALIFICATIONS AND TEACHING LOADS OF MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE TEACHERS IN MARYLAND, NEW JERSEY, AND VIRGINIA, 70¢. (Cir. No. 575.)

SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS, 1958, PART I, GENERAL FACILITIES AND EQUIPMENT, 30¢. (OE-29006.)

SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PROGRAM, 50¢. (OE-31000.)

STATE LEGISLATION ON SCHOOL ATTENDANCE, 30¢. (OE-24000.)

A STUDY OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN THE HIGH SCHOOL COOPERATIVE PROGRAM, 15¢. (OE-82000.)

UNDERSTANDING TESTING: PURPOSES AND INTERPRETATIONS FOR PUPIL DEVELOPMENT, 25¢. (OE-25003.)

### Higher Education

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ENDOWMENT INVESTMENTS, A SURVEY AS OF JUNE 30, 1958, 35¢. (Cir. No. 579.)

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY FACULTIES, RECENT PERSONNEL AND INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES, 30¢. (Bul. 1959, No. 27.)

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY FACILITIES SURVEY, PART 2: PLANNING FOR COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PLANT EXPANSION, 1956-70, 70¢. (OE-51000.)

EARNED DEGREES CONFERRED BY HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS 1957-1958, \$1.50. (Cir. No. 570.)

ENGINEERING ENROLLMENTS AND DEGREES 1958, 40¢. (Cir. No. 555.)

FACULTY AND OTHER PROFESSIONAL STAFF IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION, FIRST TERM 1957-58, 45¢. (OE-53000.)

HIGHER EDUCATION PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT DATA, 1959-60, SALARIES, TUITION AND FEES, ROOM AND BOARD, 70¢. (OE-53004.)

JUNIOR-YEAR SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS STUDENTS, FALL 1958, 45¢. (OE-54001.)

NEW DIMENSIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION, NUMBER 1, INDEPENDENT STUDY, 25¢. (OE-50005.)

NEW DIMENSIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION, NUMBER 2, EFFECTIVENESS IN TEACHING, 20¢. (OE-50006.)

OPENING (FALL) ENROLLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION, 1958: ANALYTIC REPORT, 30¢. (Cir. No. 545.)

OPENING (FALL) ENROLLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION, 1959: INSTITUTIONAL DATA, 30¢. (OE-54003.)

ORGANIZED OCCUPATIONAL CURRICULUMS, ENROLLMENTS AND GRADUATES, 1957, \$1.25. (Cir. No. 568.)

REPORTER, CLEARINGHOUSE OF STUDIES ON HIGHER EDUCATION, 1959, 50¢. (Cir. No. 562.)

REPORTER, CLEARINGHOUSE OF STUDIES ON HIGHER EDUCATION, MARCH 1960, 40¢. (OE-50004.)

RESIDENT, EXTENSION, AND OTHER ENROLLMENTS IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION, FIRST TERM, 1957-58, 50¢. (OE-54000.)

SPECIAL REPORT, CLEARINGHOUSE OF STUDIES ON HIGHER EDUCATION, 40¢. (Cir. No. 563.)

STATISTICS OF LAND-GRANT COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, YEAR ENDED JUNE 30, 1958, 70¢. (OE-50002.)

### International Education

BRAZIL, EDUCATION IN AN EXPANDING ECONOMY, 50¢. (Bul. 1959, No. 13.)

EDUCATION IN THE SOVIET ZONE OF GERMANY, \$1. (Bul. 1959, No. 26.)

EDUCATION IN THE REPUBLIC OF HAITI, 70¢. (Bul. 1959, No. 20.)

PLANNING TO STUDY IN THE UNITED STATES? A GUIDE TO PROSPECTIVE STUDENTS FROM OTHER COUNTRIES, 20¢.

PROGRESS OF PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA 1958-59, 55¢. (In four languages.)

SOVIET COMMITMENT TO EDUCATION, REPORT OF THE FIRST OFFICIAL U.S. EDUCATION MISSION TO THE USSR, 70¢. (Bul. 1959, No. 16.)

TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE NETHERLANDS, BELGIUM, LUXEMBOURG, 70¢. (OE-14016.)

### Library Services

STATE PLANS UNDER THE LIBRARY SERVICES ACT, SUPPLEMENT 1, 35¢. (Bul. 1959, No. 17.)

### National Defense Education Act

AREA VOCATIONAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS, REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMINISTRATION OF TITLE VIII NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT OF 1959, P.L. 864, 85TH CONGRESS, 15¢. (OE-80001.)

GUIDE TO THE NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT OF 1958, 25¢. (OE-10000.)

### Rural Education

SELECTED INDEXES OF RURAL SCHOOL FINANCE IN THE UNITED STATES, 1955-56, 20¢. (OE-36000.)

STATISTICS OF RURAL SCHOOLS, A U.S. SUMMARY, 1955-56, 20¢. (Cir. No. 565.)

### School Administration

CHARACTERISTICS OF ADMINISTRATIVE HANDBOOKS FOR SCHOOL STAFF PERSONNEL, 25¢. (OE-23007.)

PROPERTY ACCOUNTING FOR LOCAL AND STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS, STATE EDUCATIONAL RECORDS AND REPORTS SERIES: HANDBOOK III, 75¢. (Bul. 1959, No. 22.)

SCHOOL INSURANCE, MANAGING THE LOCAL PROGRAM, 50¢. (Bul. 1959, No. 23.)

STATUTORY BASIS FOR ADMINISTRATIVE AND SPECIALIZED SERVICE STAFFING IN LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS, 75¢. (OE-23000.)

TEACHER TURNOVER IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS, 1957-58, 30¢. (OE-23002.)

### School Finance

CURRENT EXPENDITURES PER PUPIL IN PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS: URBAN SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 1957-58, 45¢. (OE-22000.)

FINANCIAL ACCOUNTING FOR SCHOOL ACTIVITIES, 50¢. (Bul. 1959, No. 21.)

FINANCIAL STATISTICS OF INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION: STATISTICAL SUMMARY, 1955-1956, 15¢. (Cir. No. 571.)

PUBLIC SCHOOL FINANCE PROGRAMS OF THE UNITED STATES, 1957-58, \$2. (OE-22002.)

STATISTICS OF BONDS SOLD FOR PUBLIC SCHOOL PURPOSES, OCTOBER 1953-JUNE 1959, 20¢. (OE-22001.)

ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC LAWS 874 AND 815, 9TH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, JUNE 30, 1959, 60¢. (OE-22003.)

### Special Education

PREPARATION OF MENTALLY RETARDED YOUTH FOR GAINFUL EMPLOYMENT, 35¢. (Bul. 1959, No. 28.)

THE RETARDED CHILD GOES TO SCHOOL, 15¢. (OE-35000.)

TEACHERS OF CHILDREN WHO ARE HARD OF HEARING, A REPORT BASED ON FINDINGS FROM THE STUDY, QUALIFICATION AND PREPARATION OF TEACHERS OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN, 35¢. (Bul. 1959, No. 24.)

### Vocational Education

DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION, POST-HIGH SCHOOL COOPERATIVE PROGRAMS, 15¢. (OE-82001.)

FARM MECHANICS IN VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE, A SURVEY, 15¢. (OE-81001.)

A GUIDE FOR IMPROVING SAFETY EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN SCHOOL SHOPS, 35¢. (OE-84004.)

GUIDES FOR DEVELOPING CURRICULA FOR THE EDUCATION OF PRACTICAL NURSES, 60¢. (Voc. Div. Bul. No. 274.)

INSERVICE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS OF VOCATIONAL AGRICULTURE, CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING STATEWIDE PROGRAMS, 25¢. (Voc. Div. Bul. No. 277.)

THE ROLE OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION, 10¢. (Voc. Div. Bul. No. 279, Dist. Ed. Series No. 27.)

STUDIES ON THE TEACHING OF HOME ECONOMICS IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES, 55¢. (Voc. Div. Bul. No. 276, Home Economics Series No. 31.)

SUPERVISION TO IMPROVE INSTRUCTION IN DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION, 15¢. (Voc. Div. Bul. No. 278, Dist. Ed. Series No. 26.)

SUMMARIES OF STUDIES IN AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF STUDIES IN AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION WITH CLASSIFIED SUBJECT INDEX, SUPPLEMENT NO. 13 TO VOCATIONAL DIVISION BULLETIN NO. 180, 35¢. (OE-81002.)

TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN, A DIRECTORY OF TRAINING PROGRAMS, 30¢. (OE-84002.)

### Miscellaneous Publications

EDUCATIONAL TELEGUIDE, REFERENCES FOR EDUCATION BY TELEVISION, 30¢.

HANDBOOK, OFFICE OF EDUCATION, INCLUDING CAREER OPPORTUNITIES, 25¢. (OE-11002.)

PUBLICATIONS OF THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION 1959, 25¢. (OE-11000.)

SCHOOLS IN OUR DEMOCRACY, 15¢.

TEACHING AS A CAREER, 20¢. (Pam. No. 122.)



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